

PROCEEDINGS
OF THE
NATIONAL CONFERENCE
OF
Charities and Correction,

AT THE
TWELFTH ANNUAL SESSION HELD IN WASHINGTON, D.C.,
JUNE 4-10, 1885.

EDITED BY
ISABEL C. BARROWS,
Official Reporter of the Conference.

BOSTON :
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1885.

PREFACE.

WHEN at St. Louis, in October, 1884, it was decided to change the time of this National Conference from autumn to early summer, fear was expressed as to the success of a session held so soon after the preceding Conference. The large and important volume now presented is the best answer to such a doubt. The Conference met in Washington, and was in session from June 4 to June 10. The body of delegates, four hundred and four in number, was the largest that has attended any Conference. The meetings were excellent, and the interest was well sustained throughout. Discussion was absolutely unfettered, and a wide variety of opinion and experience was represented. Among the practical measures that came up for review in connection with the papers were the construction of jails, the placing-out of children, non-restraint for the insane, industrial education for defectives, and the establishment of postal savings banks as one means of helping the poor.

A glance at the volume will at once show the arrangement of topics. Following the Opening Addresses are the Reports from States, which occupy a large amount of space, more than will probably be given hereafter. But several States are here reported for the first time, and it was deemed fitting to allow them to make a full representation of their charitable and penal institutions. Henceforth, the space for these reports may be more closely confined to indicating improved methods and new legislation. Reports are given from thirty-six States and Territories.

More than sixty pages are devoted to the consideration of Insanity, embracing eight papers from experts. An equal amount of space is given to Preventive Work, with nearly as much to the kindred subject of Reformatories. The subject

of Charity Organization also claims about sixty pages, so that these important themes make up a good proportion of the book.

Other papers on Idiocy, Prisons, the Police, Uniform Statistics, Immigration, Pauperism, and Crime, find their appropriate places. The "Minutes and Discussions" make a chapter by themselves.

The Report of the Proceedings has now become such a large and costly volume that its publication is a much more serious undertaking than was the issue of the smaller yearly volumes which preceded the Cleveland Conference of 1880. Several of these are now out of print; and it may be thought expedient to reprint them, as we have this year reprinted the very scarce Report of the First Conference, of 1874. For this and for other purposes, a Publication Fund would be useful; and it is hoped that such a fund can soon be secured.

The Proceedings of former years may be obtained by application to Isabel C. Barrows, 141 Franklin Street, Boston; those published since 1880 for \$1.25 in paper covers, and \$1.50 in muslin. The Proceedings of 1877, 1878, and 1880 are scarce; the volume for 1876 is out of print. The other numbers are also for sale by G. P. Putnam's Sons, 181 Fifth Avenue, New York; and Cupples, Upham & Co., corner of School and Washington Streets, Boston.

The next session of the Conference—of which Mr. William Howard Neff, of Cincinnati, is President—will meet at St. Paul, Minn., in June, 1886; and it is expected that every State and Territory of the United States will there be represented, either by delegates or reports.

BOSTON, Nov. 5, 1885.

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I.

Opening Session.

INTRODUCTORY ADDRESSES.

ADDRESS OF HON. ARTHUR MACARTHUR,

CHAIRMAN OF THE LOCAL COMMITTEE.

Ladies and Gentlemen,—Many of our prominent citizens invited the National Conference of Charities and Correction to hold its Twelfth Annual Session in this city. The invitation has been accepted; and I, as chairman of the Local Committee, have the honor of bidding you welcome to our homes. And, after I shall have uttered my salutation, the Commissioner of the District of Columbia will also bid you welcome on behalf of the municipal authorities that he represents. After that, you will be further welcomed to the nation's capital by a written communication from the nation's President. You are thus thrice welcome.

It is not in this manner that the benefactors of mankind have generally been received. They who have labored to reform man, and through him to reform his institutions, have been looked upon as belonging to a peculiar class of people,—a kind of cranks who ride their favorite hobbies on the common highway of public opinion, recklessly trampling upon other people's ideas. It has, however, been admitted, in a patronizing sort of a way, that they were well-meaning people, actuated by lofty motives, and uttering their thought within the circle of their influence for the common good. They have been public speakers and authors. They have framed institutions, founded charities, and engaged in various reformatory efforts. They have sometimes been regarded as disturbers of the public peace and unfriendly to the settled order of things, sometimes treated with neglect and disrespect, and occasionally they have been received under circumstances of a severer character. It is not too much to say

that they have travelled a hard road. But they have made their mark, and the world is better that they have lived. As public opinion has become enlightened, and the public mind elevated to a higher plane of thought, these men have been better comprehended and appreciated. Indeed, the monuments that a grateful posterity has erected to their memory are constructed out of the stones with which they were pelted during their lives. The reformer of the past is honored, though the reformer of the present is often misunderstood.

But a new era has dawned. The measures you propose are radical, but you meet on the invitation of citizens in harmony with public feeling. You would induce nations to beat their swords into ploughshares and their spears into pruning-hooks, so that nation should not lift up the sword against nation, nor learn war any more. You would improve the condition of the prisoners, and reform the defects of character which lead to crime, pauperism, and inhumanity. The insane, the blind, the mute, are objects of your solicitude; and all methods for their treatment receive your profound attention. You would remove inebriation, idleness, and cruelty; you would reform the dissolute and redeem the vicious, and educate all classes in knowledge, virtue, and wisdom.

Such are some of the plans for which you systematize your efforts, and interchange your views, your labors, and your hopes. We are here to greet you with our love and reverence. We welcome you a thousand times to your work for the depraved, the outcast, the unfortunate and perishing classes of our fellow-men. The Local Committee will render you every service in its power, and it unites with you in hoping for the most auspicious results from your disinterested deliberations.

ADDRESS OF HON. JAMES B. EDMUNDS,

PRESIDENT OF BOARD OF COMMISSIONERS OF THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

Mr. Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen of the Conference,—You have assembled here from different parts of the United States to consider subjects that, above all others, appeal for attention and sympathy to the nobility of human nature; namely, the distress, poverty, and crimes that spring from the weakness, disease, and misfortunes of mankind. You have heard the cries of the wrecked and drowning in the voyage of life, and your benevolent sympathies are aroused.

Although the evils you are about to consider are ancient as history, and have not been limited as to time or nationality, and would seem to be as enduring and wide-spread as humanity itself, yet believing

there may be alleviation, if not cure, and recognizing the duty devolved upon all by the common brotherhood of man, you have, in a spirit of heroic benevolence, devoted yourselves to the thorough investigation of these evils as they exist to-day, determined to learn, as far as possible, the laws of their origin and growth, the best means for their prevention or reformation, and how you may, like skilled husbandmen, destroy the noxious weeds and cause a neglected soil to produce good fruit.

Adopting the modern scientific method of investigation, you have organized as a corps of volunteer workers and observers, to make, each in your special domain, a close study of these subjects in all their phases; to meet in annual conference, to report and record the results of your observations, experiments, and reflections, and return gain to your respective fields of labor with the accumulated knowledge and experience of the entire corps.

This method persevered in by the intelligent and benevolent of the whole country is a sure guarantee that the problems of charity and criminal correction are to receive a more enlightened consideration; that legislators, aided by your studies and experience, will frame wiser laws both for State and national purposes, to be surely followed by the ultimate crowning result that human misery in all its varied forms will be lessened or mitigated in every State, city, and village of the land,—a result that will reflect upon those who achieve it an honor more brilliant and enduring than what is gained by any monarch or statesman, whatever his genius or success, who follows a merely selfish ambition.

The people of this capital city, who experience their full proportion of the common evils, recognize the unselfish and sacred character of your labors, and that you bestow an honor upon the town where you assemble. They, therefore, who have hospitable greetings for all the good citizens of the United States, extend to you their most cordial welcome, as due both to your cause and to your self-sacrificing devotion; and, in so declaring, I believe I only echo the common sentiment of this community.

ADDRESS OF HON. CHARLES ANDERSON, OF KENTUCKY,

EX-GOVERNOR OF OHIO.

Ladies and Gentlemen,—It is my duty and my pleasure to respond to this kind reception. I look upon it as in all respects auspicious. We are assembled in the national capital, surrounded by these beautiful emblems of our nationality, once more—thank God!—

a united people. Our Conference is national, first, in a geographical sense. For alas! in what section, in what district, in what village, are there not unfortunates of our countrymen and our race? It also deserves the name of national in another sense. Heretofore, all efforts at discipline, punishment, reformation, or at the prevention of evil and of suffering have been by States, municipalities, or local voluntary associations. And, to speak the plain truth, the results of these diversified means have not always been successful. They have not been such as to make one very hopeful of a near millennium to our country, and some of them have been such as to lead one almost to despair. In this state of facts, it occurred to some of the wise and benevolent men of our nation, represented here and now, that something should be done to oversee, not by authority, but in kindness, all these methods and means, and to find out, if they could, the best plan for conducting these several different and unlike systems. Having had nothing to do with the origination or the administration of this Conference, my judgment of it is as impartial as that of any one of those who hear me; and I can therefore speak plainly of its work. It occurred to the founders of this body that these diverse and contradictory methods must be erroneous because so diverse, and that they should be reconsidered in the light of all their successes and all their failures. Therefore, they formed this association, assembling voluntarily from every State. It is national, then, in that respect. It comes to you to make no correction of State usage or method by any authority, but that its members may confer with each other and with you as to your experiments and their results, in order that you may arrive at the best method for the amelioration of suffering and for the punishment and discipline of the delinquents among mankind.

Now do you realize the difficulties before the gentlemen and ladies constituting this National Conference? I sometimes think we should say, in the other order, these women and these men, who are thus devoting their lives, their industry, their energy, their reason, and their money to the cause of their brother men? Many of you look upon them as persons governed wholly by their emotions; but I must tell you that a more level-headed, sober-minded, wise, practical set of men and women can nowhere be found than are they. Your money and your thought can be safely intrusted to their sober counsels. Reflect on the innate difficulties of their work. We not only "have the poor always with us," but we have the guilty and the unfortunate of every class and every degree. This has been so from

remotest times, and I fear it will remain so for generations and centuries to come. Still, it is the right and duty of every man who is a man to know and feel that he should exercise an honest, kindly, strong effort toward relieving the unfortunate and reforming the criminal.

But the trouble is innate. The personal dispositions, the home atmosphere, the social influences, and — worse than all — their hereditary taints make these classes hard to deal with. Of all these influences, that strange stamp of heredity, extending from father and mother to son and daughter, — yes, to grandson and granddaughter, and yet further down in its descent, — is the most amazing. Look at the causes of insanity and of the infinite number of diseases in your homes and hospitals! You are asked to cure maladies whose origin is inscrutable and whose effects are horrific. If any of you think it does not require historic knowledge, — knowledge of natural sciences, of art, of mental, moral, social, and governmental laws, — you make a great mistake. And, if you think these men and women are deficient in these respects, as compared with the other professional men of your State and nation, you greatly underrate their abilities, studies, and experiences.

I need not go into any argument to show you how the evils with which they have to deal are related. They are so intricately ramified as this: that you shall never know where one crime or one disease spreads itself by a strong divergence into an entirely different one, — at one time a disease, and at another a crime. And the causes are so secret and obscure that — would you believe it? — the kindest and best impulses of your heart are constantly, seriously, and terribly increasing the evils of the community. I know nothing except the depravity of dealers in alcohol, — men who disregard all the obligations that belong to the brotherhood of men, — I know no cause that increases pauperism and the vices of pauperism so much as that kindest impulse of the heart which gives to the plaintive voice and piteous appeal of the street beggars. Impulsive and indiscriminate almsgiving to these supposed objects of charity is sure to lead to abuse and to the fertile cultivation of pauperism. I beg you to reflect upon this, and to remember that not impulsive, gushing sentimentalism, so-called liberality, is to reform mankind, but that you must systematize and organize, and so find out who are the real, true paupers, and who are the worthy and deserving recipients of your alms and gifts. Until you do so, you shall ever be most industriously cultivating all the immoralities and all the sufferings which you so earnestly desire to remove and suppress.

Let me add a few practical words, that I trust will give no offence, as I mean none. This national government of ours has no penitentiary. Having a code of penal laws, it has no prisons. When we think that the strongest nation on the globe, take it all in all, with its moral, mental, and physical powers,—and I do not think it worth while even to except our dear mother land, England,—when we think, I repeat, that we are at least one of the foremost nations in learning, wisdom, strength, and happiness, so far as the people are concerned, we feel that we ought also to be a model nation in legislation on the subject of the reformation of the discipline of prisoners and of the building and construction of prisons. We ought, also, to see that the laws are justly and mercifully executed and administered. The United States ought to set an example in these respects to every nation around the globe. How is it? I am almost inclined to summarize it in brief by saying that, in this important regard, daily becoming more important with the increase of our population, industries, and wealth, we do everything which we should not do,—everything bad,—and we leave undone everything which we ought to do,—everything good. But some of you optimists, in national pride and vanity, may ask a few statistics, to prove a charge so sweeping and which tends to an infamy so deep.

I have a friend, as earnest, as diligent, as warm-hearted, as sympathetic as ever I knew; and he is, as is his wont, seeking to find a place to do some good. With great vigor and common sense, he has been trying to ascertain the condition of the legislation and of the prisoners of the national government. What is the result? The sum of it is that this nation has somewhere above one thousand prisoners for felonies; for misdemeanors, an unknown number, at unknown places. But where are the prisons of the thousand and more of those convicted and sentenced by a court of law to a place of legal punishment? Wherever there is a bad penitentiary or prison, *there* is where the prisoners of this great nation are regularly and systematically sent! Do you wonder that I apply the word "infamous" to such a system? If one of my or your children should be convicted of crime and sent to a penitentiary, we should know, at least, where he is. We should be able to follow him with our prayers, and, if practicable, with our help or redress, if illegally convicted. But, when a man is tried by a court of the United States, and sent to prison, he is often put almost beyond the possibility of discovery. This is an outrage on justice, saying nothing of mercy. In some of the prisons in which I know United States prisoners are

incarcerated, they are taken by contract, because the contractors can get the total value of their labor; taken to work outside of the prisons, perhaps to be shot down by a gun in the hands of a guard belonging to the contractors, if they attempt to escape from a place of labor and punishment to which they were never sentenced. You cannot do otherwise than condemn this outrage on mercy and justice and Christianity.

There is another accidental reason why we should be now called a national association. It has entered into the heart of men of influence and importance — probably of officials — across the waters, and elsewhere, to organize a system of sending to our shores all the idiots, all the insane, all the helpless, the paupers, and all the incorrigible, unconvicted, and criminal that they can, to take advantage of our too open doors to add thus to our population and our human stock. Doubtless, their motives are mixed. Some desire to get rid of a disagreeable spectacle and burden in their own land; some to punish us for having abstracted that vast body of men who came formerly, our forefathers, to found this republic, and those, also, who have come since, mingling with us into one congenial nation element (*e pluribus unum*), as many as the waves, and as one as the sea! That is the true condition and nature of immigration, when free. But here is an immigration that lacks the first principle of freedom, and that cannot fail to corrupt the blood, the breed, of the American nation to its remotest generations. What are we going to do about it? The general government is the only authority that has legitimate power over the question. All the efforts in New York and Pennsylvania are only episodes and vain shifts of irregular desperation. The only authority that has any regulating power with foreign nations is the United States government. I do not care how it is done. Let it be by treaty, or by non-intercourse, or by embargo, or any other civic method, if possible. I ought to have been, I suppose, a born Quaker, I am so addicted to peace, and do so hate all wars; but, if discovered to be a governmental act, in this emergency, and, having failed in all peaceful measures, I must pass out from the Quakers and join the fighting Presbyterians. It is a better cause of war than we had in 1812, or in any other crisis since the Revolution. For it adds irreparable and interminable national injury to a marked and insolent national insult. Of course, all this indicates the measure of the gravity of this stupendous evil, and not a definite proposal of a mode for its redress. I modestly leave all plans and execution of plans to this end where they belong, — with the national

government. Meantime, let me ask, is it not most fit for our National Conference of Charities and Correction thus to invoke at the national capital the attention of that government and of the nation to this national evil?

ADDRESS OF HON. HENRY M. HOYT,

EX-GOVERNOR OF PENNSYLVANIA.

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen,—It is certain that the members of this Conference must feel the stimulus of this generous welcome. Its cordiality prompts us to appropriate without misgivings the social amenities so ungrudgingly offered, and to accept the full measure of co-operation which you tender. The appreciative words in which you extend your hospitality confirm us in the significance and value of these annual meetings. The hearty greetings of your local organization and of the representatives of your great and wide-awake city are fitly and generously supplemented by the expression of broad and intelligent sympathy, through the Chief Magistrate, of this great people. Here, in the capital of the nation, this official recognition may truly exalt the purposes, stimulate the efforts, and enlarge the hopes and effectiveness of this National Conference of Charities and Correction. It ennobles and magnifies their real purposes, and gives them the publicity and authenticity which their labors, if faithful and intelligent, well deserve.

The men and women thus annually assembled are neither visionaries, dogmatists, nor hobby-riders. They are dealing with actual social problems of great complexity, whose factors are indeterminate and even repellent. There is no possible solution of them, except by tentative efforts and experimental tests. The fruits of another year's observation and experience are, here and now, to be gathered, and such conclusions digested out of them as only painstaking, conscientious conference can yield.

In civilized countries, the human family has, in the main, settled the great personal rights of freemen, the constitutional guarantees which make society possible have been secured, the leading industrial and economic laws which provide for individual and national prosperity have been agreed upon. As mankind is social by destination, we have been compelled to accept certain indispensable conditions of social life. We have, in the progress of our civilization, discarded the conclusions of Rousseau, that "man is naturally a perfect and solitary whole." The social compact transforms him into

a fraction of a greater whole. We have fallen back upon the older philosophy of Aristotle, that "one man is no man."

Realizing this, the members of this National Conference have thought it worth while to keep track, especially, of the various classes in our midst who become objects of "charity" and "correction." All along the march, our fellows are constantly falling out of the ranks,—some for defects of physical life, some for defects in mental health, some for defects in moral structure, some for defects in luck, and some for self-imposed deformity in all these respects. The law of the solidarity of society is reflected in the resultant rule of collective responsibility. We have now reached a stage in our progress where we can stop and pick up these defective, unfortunate, and vicious members of society who drop out or desert. Good men are seeking some formula under which the true relations of such may be restored, or at least how they may be taken up and carried along without arresting the march or annulling the essential law of societary organization, or without enabling the recipients of bounty, public or private, to elude the necessities of their social existence.

It is not a hundred years since the insane were confined in dungeons, or were the butts and menials of debased criminals. And now, under the instigation of philanthropists, the beautiful façades of asylums for the insane rise in beneficent testimony to human sympathy in all lands.

It is but a little more than a hundred years since a prison became an "institution" in any other sense than a mere enclosure into which society emptied its suspects or its convicts, either for torture or death, thinking to get rid at once of the prisoner and responsibility. Yet humanitarians have found a better use even for convicts than physical or moral death. This discovery has reacted on society and legislatures; for it is but little over sixty years since, in England, death was, in theory at least, the penalty for all the principal crimes.

It is only in our own day that we have had the grace, the decency, and the sense to provide by law that children should not be consigned to the degradation of the poorhouse.

These are great advances in social science. But the advances have only come by the increasing agitation of these questions in their various phases,—the discussion and agitation which conferences like these superinduce upon public opinion and conduct, and which, in the end, take effect in statutes. The average legislator can scarcely be expected to act on speculative issues and risk tax levies on unmonstrated results. All propositions, on the general subjects to

which these conferences direct attention, must be formulated, first, in the public mind: they will then, and then only, find expression in legislative halls. The order of development is, first, that some Howard or Wines shall find it possible to make prison discipline rational and moral, that a Dix or Harrison shall contrive how to make an asylum honorable and humane; next, public opinion; then, the appropriate legislation; and last, but by no means least, that a Vaux or Brockway shall, by administrative efficiency, work out the practical result.

You do well, therefore, citizens, to make your welcome, as you have done, cordial, broad, generous, public and official. The Conference hopes to prove itself worthy of your hospitality, your encouragement, and your final approbation.

PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS.

BY PHILIP C. GARRETT,

PHILADELPHIA, PA.

Ladies and Gentlemen of the Twelfth National Conference of Charities and Correction,—The traveller in Italy at the present day often turns aside for a few hours on the banks of the Arno, to view the magnificent cathedral, with its famous leaning tower and Campo Santo, at Pisa. Begun over eight hundred years ago, its erection marked the very beginning of mediæval art. He wanders through narrow streets, little changed for centuries, till he reaches the Duomo, and enters, to find it resplendent with frescos and mosaics, and a beauty of architecture scarce rivalled even now. Over the nave swings the lamp which suggested to Galileo the equality of the pendulum's vibrations. This was more than five hundred years later,—some two hundred and fifty years ago. At that enlightened period, this gifted philosopher was thrown into the dungeons of the Inquisition for declaring that the earth moved on its axis. It was as recently as this that, by Galileo's observations from the leaning tower, mankind learned the laws governing the motions of falling objects, acquired the use of the telescope, and became aware of the relations and movements of the heavenly bodies. And yet even Galileo insisted, in spite of the dungeon of the Inquisition, that the world moved. And the world does move, even the intellectual and moral world. The moral world, it is true, slowly enough; and it would perhaps require a fine instrument to mark the progress made in the treatment of the degraded and defective classes at so short intervals as one year. Yet it is not too often for philanthropists to meet and compare notes of progress, and the world moves a little faster because of these annual conferences. They are a sort of leaven which leavens our own country, at least. It is instructive to review the subjects of which they treat thus often; and the sensitive index of the brain records a gradual advance, even when words cannot describe it. The intellectual world moves slower than the physical, and the moral than the intellectual. He would surely be an enthusiast in philanthropy, who should claim a like movement in the proper administration of charities and correction

to that marvellous awakening of intellectual life that has characterized this century. But the moral renaissance began much later than that of art, or even of astronomy; is, indeed, scarcely a century old. Yet, when we look back to the last century, and compare the Bedlam of that day in Moorfields, London, and the scenes enacted at Tyburn and in front of the Old Bailey, the black holes dignified by the name of jails, and the general way of regarding the poor, the insane, the vicious, and the defective, with the like institutions and views at the present day, taking as types the most advanced and enlightened, we shall be compelled to admit a great revolution. In England, from the time of the Conquest till about the beginning of the present century, theft was punishable with death. In the reign of Edward III., 1341, there is record of one Stephen Salle, who was sentenced to be hung for the theft of articles valued at half a mark; and I suppose the same punishment would have been meted in 1741. The pillory and stocks, the whipping-post and the stake, were long favorite agencies for the *reformation* of offenders. Public executions, burnings, brandings, quartered bodies, and decapitated heads familiarized the people with barbarity, and the idea of *retribution* for crime. Their deterrent effects were evidently not very great. At Tyburn, "around the gibbet open galleries, like a race-course stand, were erected, wherein seats were let to spectators at executions."

The most scandalous ideas prevailed as to insanity and its treatment, until quite recently. Bedlam hospital was so loathsome and so filthily kept in 1598 as not to be fit to enter, and the inmates were *termed* prisoners. Up to 1770, the public were admitted to see the lunatics at a penny each; and Bedlam was one of the sights of London. As lately as seventy years ago, the patients, both male and female, seem to have been commonly chained, with lock and key, to the wall, by an arm or leg. "One Norris, stated to be refractory, was chained by a strong iron ring riveted round his neck, his arms pinioned by an iron-bar, and his waist similarly secured, so that he could only advance twelve inches from the wall, the length of his chains"; and he was kept in this condition more than twelve years. It was this case that led to a Parliamentary inquiry in 1815, and a change in the treatment. But it is quite unnecessary to go back many years to find instances of cruelty in the field of benevolence. The room of the lunacy committee in my own State is decorated with formidable chains and manacles, taken from insane persons in private homes within a few months. The era in which we live is characterized by a very mixed progress, which is not uniform all along

the line, but exhibits areas of black, as well as of white, on the map. The reign of Mercy advances tardily when it comes in conflict with parsimony, and is of very gradual recognition. Men have not all learned as yet that liberality is the best *policy*, and that the truest economy is found in a wise generosity to all of the wards of the State.

The name by which these conferences have been known implies a division of the subjects claiming their consideration into two classes, Charities and Corrections. The one of these is exceedingly broad and comprehensive, and is properly construed to comprise those fundamental questions which relate to anticipation and prevention as well as treatment of crime, pauperism, and defect. These fundamentals are in reality more important than the cure of evils that have once taken root. The other class relates solely to the *correction* of character become bad, and covers penal and reformatory matters only. The study of Jukesism, however, has shown that the sources of mental, physical, and moral aberration are so nearly related that the association of the two subjects is eminently appropriate. Ignorance, indolence, intemperance, uncontrolled anger, and licentiousness originate alike a large part of the crime, insanity, idiocy, physical defect, and pauperism with which society is afflicted; if not directly, indirectly; if not in the first generation, in the second. It therefore behooves sociologists and philanthropists, and political economists no less, to turn their attention, first of all, to these underlying evils, and those efforts at their prevention which, it is hoped, under the divine blessing, may greatly reduce the appalling number of the classes who consume, but do not produce.

So far as crime is concerned, there are other causes which, if they do not foster, at least facilitate and encourage it. One of these is the prevalent custom of carrying deadly weapons. Some of the States have laws against carrying concealed weapons, which, if enforced with severity, would greatly abate the evil. There is no safety to the wearer of a pistol in the fact of carrying it, nor is there courage in its use. For a woman there is some excuse, because it places her on an equality with the stronger sex. By whomsoever used, it invites attack, and, in sudden exasperation, facilitates and leads to crime.

Another cause is the frequent failure of justice, when juries perjure themselves, and acquit a murderer or other criminal, upon some false plea, such as insanity, simply because their sympathies lead them to wish for his acquittal,—a custom which leads often to vendettas.

A change in public opinion will perhaps be the only way of escape from these sources of violence ; and in due time, we may devoutly trust, they will follow duelling into the shades of the past.

We must all lament the increase in the practice of lynch law, which has of late years become alarmingly prevalent. There is no security to a community but in a common submission to the verdicts of law, as rendered by the properly constituted tribunals. Nor can I imagine a case where courts exist, in which any other course should be pursued. But, so long as lynchers are allowed to go unpunished, murders of this kind will continue to increase in number.

Efforts to abate the evil of intemperance are happily increasing, and, if well directed, and not guided by an intemperate zeal or fanaticism, may ultimately succeed in minimizing this most fertile source of the ills we are combating. Unfortunately, many earnest anti-liquor men are among the strongest opponents of efforts to diminish drunkenness ; and, governed by the idea that total prohibition is the *only* remedy, obstruct the attainment of the good result desired by all good men.

A large part of the damage from the vices to which I have referred tells most disastrously upon the second generation. The offspring of the real offenders are, therefore, special objects of your thought ; and such measures as will prevent these from entering lives of crime, and save them from disease and wretchedness, are among the most hopeful of lasting results. Kindergartens to lift them from the gutter, and give them a taste for education ; kinderkitchens to teach the little girls household work ; primary schools, with manual training ; trade schools, rendered necessary by the exclusion of apprentices from work by trades-unions ; Bible schools,—all these tend in the right direction. Compulsory education seems to me desirable for this class, if it is not, indeed, the indispensable defence of a republic.

The duty of the State to protect those who cannot protect themselves is a well-recognized obligation in all civilized and Christian communities. No class of charities has a stronger claim on popular support than the varied institutions for the benefit and improvement of childhood. From this originally pure and limpid fountain flows every stream that goes to make up the mighty mass of humanity. Keep the source pure, and the river will be pure, clear, and fit for every good work. Poison it, defile it, and the manhood that flows from it will be vile in proportion. Find the rivulet impure, and filter it, purify it, remove it far from deleterious influences, and you may once again render it clear and healthy as the incorruptible sea. A

sound childhood begets a good manhood,—“The child is father of the man”; while, out of a vile and wretched infancy, a degenerate and worthless manhood grows.

A drunkard sows a crop of broken hearts and ruined health and blasted hopes, and mildews everything with his souring, misanthropizing influence; and yet you cannot begin the cure with him. That must start with childhood.

Prevention is better than cure; but, when prevention has failed, the law has been violated, and we come to punitive measures, the first consideration in each case should be, Can this person yet be reformed, and make a useful citizen? There is also a point, generally overlooked, to be borne in mind in considering crime and its punishment. I believe the common idea as to criminals is that they are bad men, worse than the rest of society. This is a mistake. There are tens of thousands out of jail more wicked than a large part of those behind the bars. The reason is this,—and this is the fact which men forget,—crime is not the same as sin. Crime is offence against *human* law only. The unwhipped wicked, therefore, include not only those who escape detection, but those whose offences against the divine law are not on the statute-book. Leaving out of view a few abnormal monsters of vice, it seems to me this very important consideration should lead us to regard those of our fellow-men who have infringed the human law very much as we regard others; for “all have sinned, and come short of the glory of God.” We are not so unlike them as we would fain believe.

Considerations such as this put out of sight the idea of revenge in punitive measures, and give prominence to that of restoration. They do not make confinement within prison walls a necessary sequence of crime, if reformation of the offender can be accomplished in another way; and, in the treatment of offending childhood and youth, it *can* be effected in other ways, and much better effected.

Bearing in mind, then, the nature of crime; bearing in mind that the first consideration in dealing with it is the prevention and eradication, or, at least, diminution of crime hereafter; remembering, also, that incarceration is not of unmixed good effect on the morals of the prisoner,—it seems to me every State in this Union ought to revise its penal system, and adopt a well-devised, graded, and classified series of institutions, based on these considerations. And, first, the Massachusetts plan, referred to in the opening address last year, of surveillance at liberty by a State agent, in lieu of confinement, has the advantage that it leaves no taint of imprisonment

on the subsequent character. This might be extended from children to all first convictions, at the discretion of the court; and this of itself would relieve the State institutions of a large number of inmates, and, supposing the effect on the after life of the offender to be salutary, of a still further number of second offenders.

There would still remain the residuum of young offenders, too resolute in crime for out-door surveillance; abandoned, neglected, and incorrigible children; and all old, case-hardened offenders. To deal with these, what provision do we now find? An incongruous collection of penal institutions, various in the different States, and mostly jails worthy of the last century; very few reformatories for adults; several of the juvenile reformatories still on the old castle plan; but few, if any, States having an intelligent penal system, as perfectly graded as their public school system. The barbarous custom still prevails of confining witnesses in prison cells, a scandalous abuse of liberty without crime. In county jails, which ought all to be abolished, or revolutionized and reduced in number greatly, young and old, men and women, tried and untried, innocent and guilty, are still often herded indiscriminately together, and detained witnesses with them.

It is the duty of every State, I repeat,—a duty from neglect of which the Commonwealth will be the sufferer,—to provide a system of institutions properly planned and equipped for the criminal class. These should comprise:—

1. Reform schools for children, situated in the country, in separate, homelike cottages, accommodating not over fifty pupils each, and with honor as the basis of discipline.

2. Reformatories for first offenders between sixteen and thirty years of age, on the Elmira plan.

3. Penitentiaries, to which a limited number of local places of detention, properly distributed over the State, for untried persons only, should be tributary, and, connected with these, comfortable quarters for witnesses. These places of detention should supplant the jails. The penitentiaries should provide for as much classification as possible; hardened criminals and determined desperadoes, old or young, being kept quite apart, without possibility of communication by signs or signals with others, and never to be seen by them. The reformation of those who may reform requires this. The only class entirely excluded from this beneficent plan for reformation is the professional criminals, who have devoted themselves to a life of crime, and by long habit have become so hardened in evil ways as to be

incorrigible and unreformable. For these, the purpose of reformation disappears; and society owes it to herself to save the community from absolute certainty of fresh depredations every time the prisoner's term expires, by *keeping* him in limbo. It seems as though criminal codes should be so modified as to place somewhere the power to retain all such incorrigibles behind gratings for life, or else, by rapidly cumulative sentences with each successive conviction, to effect nearly the same result.

I cannot pass from this subject, without referring to one singular anomaly in our penal system. As an extra touch of severity, a serious culprit is sometimes sentenced to "imprisonment at hard labor." The warden of one of our large penitentiaries once said, with great truth, "Labor is not a punishment." Unquestionably, the man who is compelled to serve his sentence in idleness or even light labor is more severely punished than he is who is kept busy from morning till night. This relic of ancient ideas implies a very mistaken view of punishment. No prisoner in health should be without hard work. As a reforming agent, it cannot be overestimated. There is an excess of physical life, so to speak, in many criminal natures, which craves vent in physical effort; while idleness fosters, to an unwonted degree, the vicious propensities.

In some of these respects, legislation, and, in others, existing custom and popular opinion need revision. Nothing could be worse, however, than crude, unsystematic, and unmeaning chaos; and we would bespeak from legislatures and people an earnest consideration of the advantages of a careful study of the whole subject, and the adoption of organized methods that will, first, stanch the flow of crime at its sources, and, secondly, reduce the prison population to a minimum.

Somewhat the same line of reasoning applies to the treatment of the insane. Neither the system of county jails nor that of county almshouses is necessarily pernicious in theory. But, in most thinly peopled counties, it is practically so. Proper care for the reformation of prisoners and for the restoration of insane patients is almost certain to be neglected, when the numbers are small. It is as rare to cure insanity in almshouses, where no classification is possible, as to reform offenders under the loose system in county jails.

This is not to say that there are no county jails or almshouses where recoveries occur. A few of each of them are well equipped and under management favorable to restoration; and in Wisconsin, under the county system, careful provision is made for the insane.

But a State cannot afford, on so vital a question, to trust to haphazard, and not provide a system the best that can be devised.

If there is any value in skilled medical treatment of insanity, it is the duty of the State to give all of its insane the benefit of it. If not, let us pull down our hospitals, and bury our dearest friends thus afflicted forever out of reach of cure and care.

It appears to me there is nearly the same need of improved classification and system here as in the criminal field,—in both, a classification that will prevent the injurious influence of one case upon another, and provide at the same time the nearest approach practicable to individual or separate treatment. Such classing is best attained in a large institution, broken up into large cottages, thus bringing together numbers sufficient to allow of subdivision into classes, and at the same time giving to each of them separate treatment, according to their several needs. These cottages should be fireproof, and not over two stories in height. There is much room for an architect's skill in varying them, so as to produce a pleasing diversity in form and appearance, and avoid prison-like or institutional characteristics, while preserving the remedial features, and adapting each to its purpose. The ideal would not only be blessed with ample grounds, beautified and diversified by landscape gardening, but also a large winter-garden under glass. The gardening would contribute to the occupation and delectation of the patients. As Dr. Bryce, in his last report, well says, "Nothing is so demoralizing as idleness in, as well as out of, a hospital for the insane." No employment would seem to possess rarer advantages than busy horticulture and landscape-gardening, not so much to produce a certain fixed effect, but with the purpose by continual change—under the guidance of a skilled gardener, making a bower here and a rockery there, in one place a lakelet with islands, fountains, miniature cascades, in another shady walks, groves, and mazes of shrubbery, planting flower beds and leaf beds, building summer houses and pavilions—to amuse, soothe, and restore the patient. Plenty of ground should always accompany a hospital for the insane. The proper amount has been estimated at an acre per patient. Occupation must needs be adapted to the tastes, qualifications, previous circumstances, and condition of health of the patient; but nothing can be worse than the idle and listless brooding over misfortunes and delusions, morbid thoughts and impulses, so manifest in many institutions,—conspicuously in almshouses. Is it not clear that every patient, without exception, whose state will at all allow of it,

ought to be provided daily with nearly continuous occupation? A hundred pursuits, fitted to as great a variety of cases, present themselves for selection; and it only needs devoted attention to the subject, ingenuity and versatility in the medical superintendent, and a recognition of the importance of such provision on the part of the State, to make it a practical success. It is the bounden duty of the Commonwealth to provide whatever plant is necessary to effect this.

I would commend to careful perusal the able paper on this subject by Dr. Stephen Smith, of New York, read at the last Conference.

Every year's experience shows more conclusively the error of the mediæval treatment of lunacy, many traces of which still remain, probably in every State of this enlightened Union. Yearly additions are made to the number of superintendents who discover that severe physical restraints, so far from being necessary, are absolutely unnecessary, and even aggravate insanity, and abandon their use. But even the use of these is possibly a less serious error than the degree to which personal liberty is abridged in mild and harmless cases. Could we divest ourselves of abstruse speculations as to the definition of insanity, and accept its etymology as descriptive, some difficulties would be cleared away. We speak of a person physically indisposed as "out of health," and just so an insane person is out of health mentally. The causes of this may be numerous, and may be deep-seated or superficial; the degree of it may be severe or light, from violent acute mania down through every shade to the nicest approach to sanity. Here, in this borderland of debatable cases, lies all the trouble. A person is eccentric, he may be called insane; he is passionate, and is designated as a homicidal maniac, perhaps sometimes when he ought not to be; he is depressed, and is written as a case of suicidal mania, and perhaps suicide never occurred to him. He is extremely sensitive to painful sights and sounds, more so than in perfect health: he needs every soothing and pleasing influence; and, just at this crisis, he is involuntarily taken from his own home, placed behind grated windows, and locked in among all sorts of strange companions and in the midst of unqualified lunatics. A beautiful and charming young lady, just out of her teens, used to wealth, is extravagant; and her father, reduced in circumstances, finds himself unable to restrain her habit of spending, concludes she requires custodial care, places her in a hospital, heedless of her earnest protests. He dies, and leaves her there. There she has been near thirty years, and is now near fifty years of age, and still begging to

be released ; but the custodian still thinks she needs "custodial care," and she remains to this day under restraint of her personal liberty. The subject is a difficult one ; but I am satisfied there are many such cases, who should have their *choice* of hospital treatment or freedom. It would be safe—safer than the present involition—to let them go and come, or let them go, rather than they should feel forced into such unwelcome companionship ; and driven to more unmistakable lunacy.

The plan of an entirely separate house for nervous cases, which a conscientious physician will not certify are insane, a house quite distinct, perhaps remote, from the hospitals, is a good one. It seems of some importance, indeed, that this should not be connected in any way with a hospital for insane. Otherwise, nervous patients and their friends will shun it, as they do hospitals ; and the end will not be served.

The question to be considered is, not whether such and such a person is insane,—that is, indisposed mentally : of course he is, more or less, like the rest of us,—but, *How much* out of health is he ? Does he require to be made a prisoner, for the safety of himself or society ? If not, he should be as free, while undergoing treatment, as if suffering from rheumatism or toothache.

All experts are liable to fall, unconsciously, into certain ruts of thought, unless they are unusually dispassionate men. Moreover, they have, from long familiarity with mental suffering, less sensibility to that sad, despondent condition, conscious of imprisonment, and morbidly alive to a sad fate, than others feel. It is well. Surgeons must steel themselves to pain, or they could not wield the knife with a steady hand. They are not the less kind-hearted and humane in intention. But the fact renders it desirable to supplement medical judgment by assistance from the laity of medicine, in the careful inspection of those cases which are dubious. I believe that many wards, now under lock and key, might be thrown open, and the patients allowed to go in and out at their volition.

Still better, build cottages, in which patients may live as in their homes, contiguous or near to hospitals, where treatment could be administered, without involving close restraint of person or odium of insanity.

As in the case of penal institutions, then, we require a fuller classification, not only by wards within the institution, but of the institutions themselves. In every State, especially in the populous States, there should be :—

First.—A home or nursery, with unlocked doors, for nervous patients, whose mild attacks lie on the borders of insanity.

Second.—The large institutions, built in separate cottages, the more homelike and less institutional the better, *as homelike as possible*, without physical restraints, and with plenty of entertaining occupation.

Third.—Either connected with these institutions, or apart from them, but in either case quite removed from the other patients,—a convalescents' home.

Fourth.—A hospital for criminal insane, comprising true homicides and suicides,—*i.e.*, those who have attempted or threaten to commit those crimes, and not those who are merely passionate or melancholy; those tried for crime and acquitted on the ground of insanity; and those who have become insane after sentence for crime.

Fifth.—Schools for training and custody of those whose minds are more or less feeble, imbecile, or idiotic. This would comprise many epileptics and demented, as to whose proper custody there might be a difference of sentiment among alienists. It should also comprise, unless a sixth class of institutions is provided, custodial houses for imbecile girls, who should all, without exception, be removed from almshouses, and here find adequate accommodation.

The proper treatment of the insane is surrounded with immense difficulties, from the peculiar nature of the subject. Between the sensitiveness in the community, lest patients are abused by attendants or needlessly restrained of their liberty, on the one hand, and the natural feeling on the part of medical men that no others can know what is necessary, on the other, for both of which suppositions there is some foundation, it is hard to reconcile medical requirements with popular demands. I have never known a sane person confined as insane through sordid or improper motives on the part of the medical superintendent. Where such cases have been found, the wrong motive was on the part of relatives or friends. The superintendent needs all the wisdom of the serpent, combined with the dove's harmlessness; and he generally has these noble qualities to a large degree. From profession, education, and habit, he inclines to recognize insanity in its slightest manifestations: his convictions and sympathies favor institutional life; and he does not think he errs on that side.

It is impossible, especially at the current wages, to procure attendants who, in all cases, will be as wise as Solomon and as patient as Job under the exasperating provocations of excited lunatics. Una-

voidably, patients sometimes suffer violence at the hands both of attendants and other patients; yet such is the popular sensitiveness and the annoyance to which superintendents are subjected by noisy journals and public investigations, that silence as to such mishaps, except in confidential reports to the proper authorities, is wisdom on their part.

On the whole, great advantage will accrue from more thorough knowledge of the entire subject on the part of the general public. The wisdom of reticence as to particular cases does not extend to generalities; and I cannot imagine anything more fruitful of good in this respect than the open discussions of these Conferences, in which alienists are brought in contact with a wise lay charity. The present popular ignorance as to insanity is amazing. Some people are surprised to be told that an insane man can talk or write intelligently, or work industriously, perform music creditably, or draw and paint correctly. Their only idea of a lunatic is of a maniac or madman; and all that wide penumbra of insanity in its milder forms, so clearly demanding institutional treatment from a medical stand-point, is to them merely slight eccentricity. The intermediate institution, or infirmary for nervous diseases, will, it is hoped, bring under willing treatment a large number of concealed cases. Let us not be alarmed in consequence at the increase in insanity.

I have referred to the value of employment for the insane, and am aware it is attracting increased attention, and gives promise of being fully recognized ere long. While asking the special attention of alienists to this, I would fain lay stress upon the importance of it to every dependent class capable of performing labor. Unfortunately, the subject has been chiefly viewed, in the past, through a distorting medium,—the medium of economy. Even this is not without its value, but it is by no means the really important aspect of the question. It is the remedial potency of occupation, of body and mind, which renders it most valuable, not only for the insane, but for imbeciles, for paupers, and, not least, for convicts. From sunrise to rest, occupation almost constant, though varied, and for some individuals very light, is to be recommended. And, for other classes dependent on public support, their own happiness, and the indirect economy of preparing them for self-maintenance, would be the object, rather than the direct saving to the State by their labor while in the institution. The mischief that "Satan finds for idle hands to do" is ready all the time, and needs to be combated everywhere. It is eminently true of tramps and lazy vagabonds; and, if it may be said that the

court shows most mercy to the convict it sentences to imprisonment at hard labor, the greatest kindness is also shown to the almshouse pauper who is required to work. I do not forget that none but incapables should occupy almshouses. It is true yet that there is hardly one, not absolutely helpless, who cannot perform, and will not be better and happier for performing, some light labor adapted to his strength. But, if no well-directed effort is made to employ them, the old method will go on; and our almshouses will continue to be mills for the manufacture of vagrants, and schools for teaching idleness. The professional tramp is one of the greatest foes to society. Lazy, thieving, irresponsible, living in quiet times on the indolent charity of the thoughtless, where riot, anarchy, and communism are, there is he in troublous times. Like a bacillus of putrefaction, he thrives and becomes active on social ferment and decay. He is willing enough to work, if it is only Satan's work. The Wayfarer's Lodge system and the Bureau for Non-residents deal with this character in cities with some success. But, driven from the hives of industry where charity is effectively organized, he finds refuge in the woods and mountains, and smokes his pipe of peace under the haystack or in the barn. We yet need Charity Organization in counties, and legalized power to arrest vagrants in country localities, and enforce labor on the highways or otherwise. Our form of government makes this more difficult than in European countries. We have no *gens d'armes*, or national police, and no State police, nor any form of constabulary in the country districts. A movement of this kind has been started in Montgomery County, Penn., its efforts being enforced by a private constable in the pay of the Bryn Mawr Relief Society, with the Governor's warrant for his action. Once let a State perfect an organization in all of its counties and create an atmosphere tramps cannot breathe, and the swarming regions around its borders will be forced to take like measures. Now there are too many Edie Ochiltrees abroad; and the present system fails to reach the evil of vagrancy, because as soon as the city grows too hot for the tramp he still has the green pastures and still waters of the country for his home, and goes forth to dwell with the lilies of the field, where no Charity Organization can make him afraid. Some thorough scheme needs to be devised by which it will be as impossible for these parasites on society to live and flourish in mountain and meadow as in the crowded metropolis. The organization of charity, in fact, is needed wherever charity exists; and, if charity is to be systematized thoroughly and effectively, so as to extirpate

vagrancy, and is not to wander itself in vagrant threads, ravel, and fringes, at its own sweet will, the system will have to be extended to the rural districts. Unorganized charity wastes its sweetness. Systematized, its work will produce double the effect, at half the cost.

I have thus ventured briefly and very imperfectly to advert to the present status of some of the subjects coming before the Conference. Although there is little or nothing new in these remarks, it has seemed to me desirable to emphasize a few points, especially prevention, employment, and classification, three quite distinct topics, as claiming more attention than heretofore they have received,—prevention, as going to the root of evils, preceding them, going even back of their sources to their causes, and scotching them in their birth; employment, in almshouses, in hospitals for the insane, in prisons, in reformatories, and asylums for the defective classes, as of great importance, being essential to happiness, comforting, and remedial as well as profitable; increased classification and subdivision, both of the institutions and their inmates, especially in the treatment of lunatics and criminals, as vital to the best results, for the reasons given.

There are other subjects not on the programme of the present Conference, as to which there are also living and interesting questions, which are not forgotten, but upon which I will not dwell. I have sometimes thought the scope of subjects was not wide enough. In my own city there are some three hundred or more institutions, of very various purpose and usefulness. Hospitals for the sick and wounded have not claimed much attention here, and numerous other classes of charities. It may be worth considering whether the dependent races, as well as the dependent classes, are embraced in the legitimate area of these discussions. There are many important problems relating to them, interesting to us all. The Indians, especially, who bear such a peculiar and anomalous relation to this nation, and who, although the aboriginal owners of the soil, have not yet been granted rights of citizenship, merit benevolent sympathy. The problem of their treatment, so as best to serve the common weal, is one of no common magnitude and complexity, and one well worthy of the purest and ablest consideration of philanthropists.

We must not clip the wings of charity, or limit its flight too much. Charity is very broad; and its quality, like that of mercy, "is not strained," but blesseth him who gives and him who takes. Its mantle is thrown over every object of pity with loving care, born of a Christ-like humanity. But it is best and most lovingly and kindly bestowed,

when guided by the hand of wisdom. Wisdom is based upon knowledge, and regulates the impulse that would luxuriously lavish favors at the ungoverned dictate of the heart. It is the wise part of these Boards of State Charities, these Charity Organizations, and these National Conferences, so to lay the foundations of knowledge, so to build thereon living stones of experience, that our philanthropy shall redound to the greatest good of man, and the highest glory of God, the great Master-builder.

II.

Reports from States.

METHODS, STATISTICS, AND RESULTS.

REPORT OF STANDING COMMITTEE.

The Standing Committee on Reports from States submitted the following report, signed by Fred. H. Wines and William Howard Neff:—

In spite of every effort made to that end, we have been unable to secure reports from all the States and Territories. The attentive reading of those which are herewith presented will, we think, impress two thoughts upon the reader's mind: first, that every institution in the United States has been brought, by the organization of this Conference, under the eye of the entire country; and, second, that those who seek to carry the burden which rests upon the people, through crime, pauperism, and innocent misfortune, are lifting it, not singly, but together, every man in his place.

It is evident that the same difficulties have to be met and overcome in States widely separated from each other. There are also difficulties which are local in their nature. These reports are sufficiently alike to make us feel a keen sympathy for each other in our work, and yet there is enough of diversity in them to keep interest awake and active. It is well that we should take broad views of the work to be done, and realize how little of it comes under our personal observation or depends upon us for its successful achievement.

Without intending to make any invidious comparison between reports, all of which are excellent, we invite special attention to the abolition of the subleasing of convicts in Arkansas; the extraordinary activity in preventive work among children, in California; the liberal extension of provision for the insane of Indiana; Miss McCowen's admirable account of the charitable and correctional work

of Iowa ; the creation of a reformatory for young men, in Kentucky ; the advanced position of Minnesota in the development of a complete and adequate system of public institutions ; the creation of a second penitentiary in Missouri ; the New York experiment of caring for the insane in tents ; the statistical evidences of progress in North Carolina ; the interesting *résumé* of the work of the Pennsylvania Committee on Lunacy ; and the history of the Wisconsin experiment of county insane asylums under State supervision. It will be observed that in a number of States homes for dependent children have been established, and that rapid advances are making in the attention bestowed upon the wants of the idiotic and feeble-minded. These are indications of progress.

If we have to chronicle some failures, let us not be discouraged, but rather provoked to new and more earnest effort.

We are struck, however, by the incompleteness of many of the reports presented. Departments of effort are not named in our report, of which we should have a full account. We suggest that the Committee be continued for another year, and that all persons be invited to communicate with it freely, at any time when there is anything of interest to impart ; that all institutions, private or public, and all associations or departments or officers of State or municipal governments be requested to send to it every published report and other document issued from the press, in order that, at the next session of the Conference, a complete retrospect of charitable and correctional work for the year may, if possible, be presented.

ALABAMA.

Dr. BRYCE, Tuskaloosa.—Since the last meeting of the Conference, two new sections have been added to the Alabama Insane Hospital, and opened for the reception of patients. The appropriation for them was \$100,000. We are making preparation for the erection of another separate building for the colored insane, which will accommodate about 250. When that is completed, the capacity of the hospital will be about 1,000. It is conducted strictly on the non-restraint plan, and is supported by the State at a cost of \$143 per annum for each indigent patient under treatment.

The School for the Deaf, Dumb, and Blind at Talladega, under the superintendence of Dr. J. H. Johnson, with from 75 to 100 pupils, is maintained by the State, at an expense of about \$20,000 a year.

The last report of the inspectors of the Penitentiary shows great improvement in its general management. The system of hiring out convicts still obtains, but is so regulated by law as to remove many of its objectionable features. The inspectors are all men of the highest intelligence, and they are particularly active in securing the kindest treatment for the convicts. They visit the several mining camps very frequently, and are strict to enforce the laws with reference to the liberal supply of food and other comforts, reasonable hours of work, and other hygienic requirements prescribed by statute. The mortality under this improved system has diminished greatly within the past year or two, and the State has nothing to be ashamed of in her treatment of her criminal classes.

There are in Mobile, Montgomery, and other large cities in the State asylums for orphans, homes for fallen women, hospitals for the sick, etc., supported by private or municipal charity.

ARKANSAS.

Dr. C. C. FORBES, Little Rock.—The charitable and correctional institutions of this State are the Penitentiary, the Deaf-mute Institute, the School for the Blind, and the State Lunatic Asylum, founded in the order named.

The Penitentiary is as old as the State itself, which dates its existence from 1836. It contains at present 597 prisoners, which is about the average number: 198 white males, 4 white females, 378 colored males, 11 colored females, and 6 male Indians, who are United States prisoners. The prison is too contracted for the proper and profitable employment of this number of inmates, so that the system of subleasing prevails to an extent sufficient to disincumber it of prisoners in excess of its capacity. The subleased convicts (all males) are employed on plantations, in coal mines, and in the construction of railroads, in all of which the lessees are more or less interested. About one-half of the entire number are at work for the lessees directly, either in the prison or about it. The work carried on in the prison consists in the manufacture of wagons, ploughs, and other farming implements, harness-making, tailoring, and the manufacture of cigars. The legislature appropriated last winter an amount sufficient to enlarge the Penitentiary, so as to admit of the employment of all prisoners in or about it, with the purpose of abolishing the system of subleasing, which is exceedingly distasteful to the outside population, as presenting an odious competition in the

matter of labor. The plans for enlargement have been adopted, and work will begin immediately.

The Deaf-mute Institute was founded in 1868. The present number of pupils is 77; the average, 65. In addition to the educational department, there is an industrial department, including a printing-office and a shoe-shop. The *Deaf-mute Optic* is printed by the pupils, and is a highly creditable paper. The legislature has made an appropriation for the enlargement of the institution.

The School for the Blind was established in 1869. It has 48 pupils, which is about the average number. From its inception, it has struggled against disadvantages arising from the want of sufficient and suitable accommodations, but, in spite of all its embarrassments, has done excellent work. The legislature has made an ample appropriation to provide for all needed buildings and equipment. Male pupils are taught mattress-making and upholstering. A change has recently taken place in its officers.

The State Lunatic Asylum was erected in 1882, and formally opened on the 1st of March, 1883. It is situated three miles west of the capitol, upon a handsome and eligible site, with healthful and picturesque surroundings. It has a capacity for 250 patients, who are accommodated in six wards. The buildings are substantial, plain, but imposing, spacious, and airy, and provided with all modern improvements, if electric light is excepted. In six months from its opening, it was filled to the extent of its capacity. The legislature has appropriated money for the construction and furnishing of two additional wings, of two wards each, which will provide for 160 additional patients. It is believed that this will meet all urgent demands for the present.

CALIFORNIA.

Mr. E. R. HIGHTON, Alameda.—The direction of the abounding benevolence in this State, during the past year, has been mainly toward "preventive" and "child-saving" institutions. Several kindergartens have been established. A Home for Feeble-minded Children has received legislative sanction and support by an appropriation of \$45,000. The Boys' and Girls' Aid Society has adopted various methods to increase its efficiency, and has received some valuable donations. The Children's Protection Society has been especially active in rescuing white children from the Chinese, to whom they had been sold. Infant shelters, and various methods to guard and

protect children and relieve hard-working parents, have increased in number and are constantly increasing. The munificent benevolence of one of our prominent millionnaires has been exercised in planning a scheme of practical industrial education, of vast prospective utility to the State.

The legislature has generously responded to the requirements for the insane, for the support of the deaf, dumb, and blind; and, in various ways which I am not able to specify, the public and private benevolence of the State is actively directed to averting or ameliorating the ills incident to humanity. In order to secure a proper summary of our charitable and correctional operations, a State Board of Public Charities, adapted to our local circumstances, is much needed. At the last session of the legislature, an attempt was made to create such a board; but it failed, probably because the legislature had previously determined to appoint a commission to investigate and frame a plan for penal, reformatory, and preventive measures for the State, which it was thought necessary should precede and conclude its work before the formation of a State Board of Charities.

The appointment of the above commission was directed, by joint resolution, to be made by the governor, in accordance with the recommendations contained in the report of the commissioner who visited the Eastern States to inquire into penal and reformatory methods; and, until this commission is appointed, prison reform, and a recommendation for actively suppressing juvenile delinquency by a State censorship, must remain in abeyance.

There have been some minor improvements in the State Prison, such as clothing the officers in uniform and the appointment of a matron at San Quentine. The directors, I am informed, have some plans under consideration for the saving of expenses; but no radical change of system, and no improvement worthy to be called a reform of prison discipline, have been attempted.

The county jails still continue to merit the stigma of "Devil's Kindergartens." They exhibit all the conditions of vicious contamination so eloquently exposed and denounced at the last Conference, in reference to other States, and which have been echoed and amplified in pamphlets by Mr. Round and by Mr. Levi Barbour.

The outlook, especially for preventive and child-saving work, in this State is encouraging; and there can be no doubt that the work of prison reform will shortly be resumed with renewed activity, when the agency directed by the legislature shall have been set in motion by the executive.

I append a statement of the State appropriations for various charitable institutions for the years 1883 and 1884, which were considerably increased by the late legislature :—

DISBURSEMENTS FROM STATE TREASURY, FOR THE SUPPORT OF ORPHANS, HALF-ORPHANS, AND ABANDONED CHILDREN, THIRTY-FOURTH AND THIRTY-FIFTH FISCAL YEARS, 1883 AND 1884.

Roman Catholic Institutions.

St. Vincent's Orphan Asylum, San Rafael,	\$56,906.88
San Francisco Female Orphan Asylum,	73,424.13
St. Joseph's Infant Asylum,	51,233.34
Grass Valley Orphan Asylum,	41,282.31
Pajaro Valley Orphan Asylum (male),	13,149.37
Los Angeles Orphan Asylum,	11,801.38
St. Vincent's Female Orphan Asylum, Petaluma,	7,308.10
Los Angeles Orphans' Home,	7,001.91
St. Vincent's Orphan Asylum, Santa Barbara,	5,735.22
St. John's Orphan Asylum,	5,141.06
Home of Benevolence, San José,	4,705.15
Santa Cruz Female Orphan Asylum,	4,175.15
St. Boniface Orphan Asylum,	743.66
Total to Catholic institutions,	\$282,607.66
Ladies' Protection and Relief Society, San Francisco,	22,599.95
Good Templars' Orphan Asylum,	20,433.55
Ladies' Relief Society Asylum, Oakland,	7,646.80
Almshouse, San Francisco,	4,582.41
Foundling Asylum, San Francisco,	1,920.56
San Francisco Protestant Orphan Asylum,	33,435.54
Sacramento Protestant Orphan Asylum,	16,451.78
Hebrew Orphan Asylum, San Francisco,	11,309.79
Total to all private institutions,	\$400,988.04

The report of Mr. Highton was accompanied by the following documents :—

1. Abstract of Twenty-seventh Annual Report of the Howard Benevolent Association of Sacramento.
2. Appeal in Behalf of the California Association for the Care and Training of Feeble-minded Children.
3. Annual Statement of the New Silver Street Kindergarten Society, with circulars of the California Froebel Society and California Kindergarten Training School, also a pamphlet on the Free Kindergarten Work of the Pacific Coast.
4. Report of the Veterans' Home Association, which receives from

the State Treasury \$12.50 per month for every inmate who does not draw a pension.

5. Thirteenth Annual Report of the Pacific Hebrew Orphan Asylum and Home Society.

6. Thirteenth Annual Report of the Ladies' Relief Society, Oakland.

7. Fifth Annual Report of the State Board of Prison Directors.
Also sundry letters.

COLORADO.

Mrs. J. S. SPERRY, Pueblo.—Colorado has four State institutions. The Mute and Blind Asylum, at Colorado Springs, of which Prof. D. C. Dudley is principal, had last year an average of 35 deaf and 10 blind pupils. The expenses were \$22,899.47. It is supported by a special tax of one-fifth of a mill on each hundred dollars.

The Industrial School at Golden, under Mr. and Mrs. W. C. Sampson, since its opening, four years ago, has during that time received 222 children. It is conducted on the cottage plan, with three families, each in charge of a "house father." The annual cost of support is \$22,000.

The Penitentiary at Cañon City contains at present 372 convicts, of whom 31 are life prisoners. The appropriation for 1885 and 1886 for support is \$190,000. During the last two years, \$52,900 has been expended in improvements. Mr. C. P. Hoyt is warden.

The Insane Asylum at Pueblo has been under the superintendence of Dr. P. R. Thombs since its establishment. The number of patients is 120; the annual per capita cost, \$285; and the appropriation, \$43,000.

At the last session of the legislature, several bills were presented for the benefit of the unfortunate, among them one asking for the creation of an industrial school for girls; but they did not pass. A law was enacted, compelling all executions to take place within the Penitentiary, and allowing a limited number of witnesses, with representatives of the press and the prison officers. There are few counties in the State in which the jails are secure; and there is a strong feeling against public executions. There are several private charitable institutions in Denver, of which the Orphans' Home is one of the best managed and most worthy. The Home for the Friendless is also accomplishing much good. The Ladies' Benevolent Union Home, in Pueblo, established four years ago, assists men, women, boys, and girls, to obtain employment. It secures homes for home-

less children. There is also a hospital department ; and, during the past year, 148 patients were cared for in it. The private charities of Colorado will compare favorably with the same work in older States.

CONNECTICUT.

Mr. H. E. BURTON, Secretary State Board of Charities, Hartford.—The State Board of Charities, consisting of three men and two women, was established in 1873, and was reorganized in 1884, under an act of that year, enlarging its powers, defining its duties, and increasing its means and facilities. It inspects all institutions for the care or support of the dependent or criminal classes, and embodies its doings, information, statistics, and suggestions in reports presented to the governor in January in each year.

Of the 167 towns of the State, 101 have poorhouses, of which 61 are owned by towns, and 40 are kept by private owners under varying contracts with towns. All have been visited by one or more members of the Board of Charities within two years. The whole number of pauper inmates found was 1,415, of whom 357 were able to work, 160 were feeble-minded or idiotic, and 121 were insane. Eleven poorhouses received prisoners. The sexes were not generally separated, except as they slept in different rooms, but these, as a rule, were on the same hall. Men, women, and children ate together, spent their days together, and associated together without supervision or restraint other than the accident of numbers.

The signal reform of late years in Connecticut is in the provisions of the act of 1883, establishing county temporary homes for dependent and neglected children between the ages of two and sixteen years ; forbidding overseers of the poor to keep such children in poorhouses ; forbidding courts to commit any child under the age of sixteen years, as vicious, truant, or incorrigible, to any jail, poorhouse, or workhouse ; permitting courts to commit children of the classes described in the act to any county temporary home ; and requiring that these homes "shall not be used as a permanent provision or residence for any child, but for its temporary protection, for so long a time only as shall be absolutely necessary for the placing of the child in a well-selected family home."

The fundamental doctrine of the law is that the best place for a Connecticut child is in an average private home of the State. The purpose is to put her dependent children into such homes. The office of the temporary homes is to take proper care of them until

they can be placed in the right private homes. The duty of the boards of management (consisting in each county of the county commissioners, one member of the State Board of Charities, and one member of the State Board of Health), and of the town committees provided for in the act, is to find such homes, get the children into them, and see to it that they are well treated after they are so placed.

There are three ways of getting children into the temporary homes: 1. Overseers of the poor may commit them at the expense of towns; 2. Courts may commit them at the expense of the State; 3. Private persons, societies, etc., may commit them at their own expense.

There are two ways of getting them out of the temporary homes: 1. They may be taken by the authority which committed them; 2. They may, and must, be put into good private homes, subject to the approval of the Board of Management, and subject to the right of that Board to remove them at will.

While in the temporary homes, the children attend the district schools of their neighborhoods, and are fed, clothed, doctored, and in every way properly cared for at a cost of about \$2 per week each. In private homes found for them, they rarely cost anything.

There is this difference between ordinary institutions, as commonly managed, and these temporary homes: the instinct of the former is to get all the children they can and to keep all they get; the law of the latter is to get all they can, but not to keep them a day, if they can help it.

Up to November 30 last, 230 children had been gathered into the temporary homes, of whom about fifty per cent. had gone out into private homes.

The reform and industrial schools of Connecticut are under enlightened and progressive management. They have an indispensable work to do, and they know the limits of that work. They commend the purpose and recognize the usefulness of the temporary homes.

Population of the State, census of 1880,	622,700
Grand list of the State, November, 1881,	\$338,414,076.00
Grand list of the State, November, 1882,	342,242,566.00
Cash expended by towns for support of poor for year ending November, 1882,	556,315.50
Cash expended by towns for support of poor for year ending November, 1883,	578,589.96

Abstract of certain expenditures by the State for eight years, ending Nov. 30, 1884:—

	Board of Prisoners in County Jails.	State Prison.	State Reform School for Boys.	Connecticut Industrial School for Girls.	State Paupers.	•Humane Institutions.	Soldiers' Children.	Sundry Accounts.
1877	\$87,358.01	\$5,237.09	\$34,288.00	\$10,297.03	\$6,156.30	\$128,436.90	\$20,646.75	\$32,951.21
1878	58,749.80	6,219.62	29,672.93	20,332.77	4,965.20	81,727.35	14,739.60	13,618.40
1879	53,646.25	7,644.95	32,686.60	21,666.91	3,882.02	89,851.32	11,947.21	71.50
1880	50,656.04	7,932.87	49,435.91	34,516.48	4,055.01	157,705.31	9,003.02	1,500.00
1881	57,417.42	10,850.68	51,468.18	45,800.21	3,876.40	177,680.45	7,787.16	151.95
1882	70,262.49	12,408.19	48,488.40	29,955.56	4,711.13	184,925.45	7,806.73	2,600.86
1883	74,207.45	11,084.17	74,568.79	31,544.25	5,023.84	120,125.10	7,081.74	23,268.56
1884	86,573.89	7,007.46	72,752.20	38,721.72	5,962.56	162,346.92	6,342.10	†32,845.39

The appropriations made by the General Assembly for humane and reformatory institutions for the year ending June 30, 1886, were as follows:—

"Hospital for the Insane: for pauper and indigent insane and insane convicts, \$71,500; for insane soldiers, \$3,500; for insane supported elsewhere than at Middletown, \$8,000. For support of boys in State Reform School, \$50,000. For support of girls in Connecticut Industrial School, \$32,000. For board and clothing of sick and wounded soldiers in hospitals in this State, \$25,500. For Fitch's Home for Soldiers, \$1,500. For burial expenses of deceased soldiers, \$5,000. For support of soldiers' children, \$7,000. For support of State paupers, \$7,000. For General Hospital Society, \$5,000. For Hartford Hospital, \$5,000. For Bridgeport Hospital, \$5,000. For support of the deaf and dumb, \$10,750. For State Board of Charities: salary of secretary, \$600; travelling and other necessary expenses of members of the board, not including office rent, which shall be furnished by the comptroller in the State capitol, \$1,200. For State Board of Health, \$5,000; special appropriation for use of the board, to be expended in the event of the visitation of the Asiatic cholera, \$10,000. For Firemen's Association, \$5,000. For School for Imbeciles, \$8,000. For support of the blind, \$5,000. For State prison: deficit in earnings, \$10,000; library, \$300, to be expended

*This heading includes expenditures for the insane, the deaf and dumb, the blind, hospitals, imbeciles, and homes for dependent and neglected children.

†Sick and Wounded Soldiers, \$20,125.70; Diseased Soldiers, \$4,747.02; State Board of Charities, \$2,161.22; Special Commissions, \$5,811.45; Total, \$32,845.39.

for books and periodicals only. For board of prisoners in county jails, \$90,800. For south wing for Hospital for the Insane, \$50,000. For Prison Association: salary of secretary, \$1,000; care of discharged insane and idiotic prisoners, \$100; all other expenses, \$1,000. For Humane Society, \$1,500." Total, \$426,250.

Connecticut Hospital for the Insane, Middletown.

The number of patients admitted during the year ending Nov. 30, 1884, was 243: men, 121; women, 122.

The total number under treatment was 103.

The number discharged was 180: men, 100; women, 80.

The number of deaths was 55: men, 34; women, 21.

The average number of patients was 883.22: men, 402.58; women, 480.64.

There were 120 insane persons provided for by the State during the year, outside of the Connecticut Hospital for the Insane, as follows:—

At Retreat for the Insane, Hartford,	64
At Connecticut School for Imbeciles, Lakeville,	3
At Vermont Asylum for the Insane,	6
At Butler Hospital for the Insane, Rhode Island,	6
At New Hampshire Asylum for the Insane,	39
At Danvers Lunatic Hospital, Mass.,	2

The State Reform School for Boys, Meriden.

Number of boys received since the opening of the school in March, 1854,	3,812
Number in the school Dec. 1, 1883,	406
Number received during the last year,	232
Number discharged in various ways during the last year,	231
Number remaining in the school Nov. 30, 1884,	407

The Connecticut Industrial School for Girls, Middletown.

Number of girls received since the opening of the school in January, 1870,	644
*Number of girls dismissed since Jan. 1, 1870,	647
*Number of girls returned,	209
Number of girls remaining out,	438
Number of girls in the school Dec. 1, 1883,	195
Number of girls received during the last year,	86
Whole number of girls under care during the last year,	281
Number of girls placed out,	75
Number of girls in the school Dec. 1, 1884,	206

* These figures include a number of girls who have been dismissed and returned more than once.

The Connecticut School for Imbeciles, Lakeville.

The State beneficiaries in this school during the year ending Nov. 30, 1884, numbered 64.

The Blind.—The provision made by the State for the blind is by way of an appropriation, under which they may be sent for care and instruction to the Perkins Institute for the Blind, in Boston. There were 17 beneficiaries of the State there during the year ending Nov. 20, 1884.

The Deaf and Dumb are provided for at the American Asylum for the Deaf and Dumb, at Hartford; at Whipple's Home School for Deaf-mutes, at Mystic Bridge; and at the Clarke Institute for Deaf-mutes, at Northampton, Mass.

The total number of deaf-mutes cared for and instructed at the expense of the State during the fiscal year ending Nov. 30, 1884, was 57.

DAKOTA.

Mr. T. D. KANOUSE.—The total amount of the appropriations for the support, enlargement, and improvement of the charitable and correctional institutions of the Territory, for the ensuing two years, is \$376,444, of which \$43,999 is for the transportation of convicts and insane persons. The following are the appropriations to institutions:

Institution.	Location.	Support.	Special.	Inmates.
Hospital for the Insane,	Yanktown.	\$97,470	\$8,750	160
Hospital for the Insane,	Jamestown.	58,000	63,000	..
School for Deaf-mutes,	Sioux Falls.	18,000	..	30
Penitentiary,	Sioux Falls.	67,200	..	130
Penitentiary,	Bismarck.	33,424	14,600	..

The blind of Dakota are taken to the Iowa Institution.

There is, as yet, no system for the maintenance of the poor. The population of the Territory is almost entirely made up of young, vigorous, and intelligent people, who take advantage of the many opportunities for earning a livelihood, so that a pauper is scarcely known in her borders. When misfortune overtakes the few, the many lend a willing, helping hand, the shoals are soon past, and a self-supporting citizen is saved.

DELAWARE.

Mr. WILLIAM M. CANBY, Wilmington.—The only provision for criminals in the State of Delaware is a county jail in each of the three counties. In two, they have good substantial stone buildings of ample dimensions for the population; and, in the third, a small

brick building, which is in need of repair. The total number of criminals at present confined in the State is 89,—51 white males, 35 colored males, 1 white female, and 2 colored females. They are totally unemployed, so far as the county or State is concerned. They are also entirely unclassified, there being no distinction between tried and untried inmates, nor yet between young and old. In New Castle and Kent Counties, the sheriff receives thirty-five cents, and in Sussex County forty cents per day for board of prisoners. This is a provision open to great abuse, and, in the opinion of a large number of intelligent citizens, ought to be abolished. One of the pressing needs of the State, however, is a State prison, or workhouse, in which the inmates shall be compelled to labor, not only as a matter of economy to the State, but also as a reformatory measure.

The special feature in the criminal code of Delaware is a practical application of the whipping-post and pillory. This institution has been in existence since the foundation of the Commonwealth. In the early history of this as well as of many other States, both men and women were whipped and pilloried. The penalty was also much more severe than at the present time. The following case will illustrate: "As far back as 1800, we read of one Hannah Steel, in Kent County, who was convicted of receiving stolen goods, and sentenced to be publicly whipped on the bare back with twenty-one lashes, to be branded on the forehead with the letter R, and to pay \$25.60, four-fold the value of the goods stolen." The whipping of women ceased to be legal in Delaware, in convictions for larceny and receiving stolen goods, in 1855; but there were other crimes for which they were whipped. So far as we can learn, the last instance of a woman being whipped was in 1864. In former times, the culprit in the pillory was greatly abused. But this ill treatment and also the severity of the whipping are now things of the past, and sheriffs largely use their discretion as to the severity of the punishment. Blood is seldom, if ever, drawn by the lash. As at present administered, the whipping-post is in almost universal favor with the most intelligent citizens of the State, who claim that it is a great protection, as a preventive of petty crimes. Very few, if any, non-residents have ever been caught the second time, and comparatively few residents have been whipped more than once. The greatest number of times any one criminal has ever been whipped, so far as we could ascertain, is four. It is regarded as preventive rather than reformatory in character. It involves two principles, fear of physical punishment and public humiliation. We believe a careful examination of the

subject would give a very favorable showing for the State of Delaware in her criminal statistics, in comparison with other States.

Each county is provided with an almshouse, with farm attached. They have buildings for the insane in all the counties, entirely separated from the main wards. New Castle County has just completed a large and commodious house at a cost of nearly \$300,000, complete in all its appointments, except in the absence of an outside fire-escape. An effort was made at the last session of the legislature to have the insane department placed under State control; but this project, unfortunately, failed on final reading. Sussex County has also erected additional buildings for almshouse purposes, and contemplates still greater improvements in the near future. The buildings in Kent County are in fair condition. Total population of almshouses, 317 adults, 32 minors, many of them infants, and 87 insane. It is creditable to the management of the almshouses that comparatively few children remain in the institutions. As soon as old enough, they are indentured, and thus escape the pauperizing effects of degraded surroundings.

The Chancellor of the State has power to place a limited number of the indigent insane in insane asylums in the State of Pennsylvania. The associate judges of the Superior Court have power, under restrictions, to place a certain number of indigent blind and deaf and dumb in the Pennsylvania institutions for the instruction of the blind and deaf and dumb, respectively. They also have power to place a given number of feeble-minded and idiotic in the Pennsylvania institution at Media.

The private charitable institutions of the State are confined to the city of Wilmington. They consist of a well-managed Home for Friendless Children; an Old Women's Home, managed very creditably by a number of competent and philanthropic women; the Associated Charities, which has been in successful operation since Dec. 22, 1884; and the Ferris Reform School, which is not yet in operation, but has about completed its organization, on the open system. It is the outgrowth of a trust of \$75,000, bequeathed for that purpose some years ago.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

Mrs. SARA A. SPENCER, Washington.—Whatever this Conference may think of the present condition of our charitable and correctional institutions, we are glad that you will never know what was their appearance a year ago. In the admirable opening address of President Garrett, he said, "It would perhaps require a fine instrument to mark the progress made in the treatment of the degraded and

defective classes at so short intervals as one year." But, in this district, no instrument is required whatever. The growth is visible to the naked eye. If such is the result of the mere prospect of the assembling of this distinguished body in the national capital, now that you have come, "what shall the harvest be"? Your coming has been a benediction. Your memory will be a sweet incense rising to heaven.

One striking indication of a healthy change in public sentiment here is that, although we have had a winter, cruel in its severity, and the miserable, thriftless poor have held up their hands and lifted up their voices, no citizens' relief committee has been appointed to canvass the district for funds; and there has been no general outcry of the press, to wring our hearts with harrowing accounts of distress, resulting in the pouring into wretched hovels of countless loads of something for nothing. As shown in the accompanying table, over 2,000 tramps have been sent to the workhouse, where they have been detailed to work for the city, not only supporting the workhouse, but contributing to the support of the almshouse and hospital, by the proceeds of their labor, \$20,845. Many of this class were, for trifling offences, formerly sent to jail, where, it was ascertained, they loved to spend the winter, supported at ease, in congenial company, without labor. The District Commissioners and the warden of the United States Jail would gladly have put the 1,969 prisoners, in the jail (or at least the convicted criminals), at work also, but have not been able to obtain from Congress the necessary legislation.

There is neither time nor space in which to do justice to the immense amount of work done by the warm-hearted women of Washington during the year, in building up and sustaining the Garfield Hospital, the Homœopathic Hospital, the Nurses' Training School, the House of Mercy, the House of the Good Shepherd, and other similar works of benevolence.

It is said that the expenditures in gross and in detail are too vast in proportion to the needs of the District. True; but the nation generously sends to us its national tramps, paupers, and dead-beats, who need little persuasion to come, and none to stay. The government and the treasury are here, and no great industrial enterprises. Why should they not settle in this Garden of Eden? A District official (Commissioner West) has prepared a list, showing that, aside from private charities, the United States and the District of Columbia have jointly expended, in the care of the delinquent, defective, and dependent classes, in one year, \$570,750, equivalent to \$321 for each resident of the District; while New York City, the great clearing-

house of the dependent classes of both hemispheres, expends only at the rate of \$192 per capita. But the gentleman's figures do not include the United States Jail nor the Institution for the Deaf and Dumb, which make the actual total \$680,625.23. But, for obvious reasons, these expenditures are both local and national, and have no relation to the population of the District.

Appended to Mrs. Spencer's report was a list of charitable institutions and associations in the District, which has been rearranged in alphabetical order, and is as follows:—

TABLE.

No.	Name.	Location.	Inmates.	
			During Year.	Average Number.
1	Aged Women's Home,	1255 32d, N.W.,	13
2	Baptist Home for Aged Women,	5
3	Children's Hospital,	W, between 12th and 13th,	183	107
4	Church (P. E.) Orphanage,	525 20th, N.W.,	60	50
5	Colored Women's Home,	1909 R, N.W.,	12
6	Columbia Hospital for Women,	25th and Pennsylvania Ave., N.W.,	350	60
7	Dental Infirmary,	1004 E, N.W.,
8	East Washington Industrial School for Colored Children,	2d and C, S.E.,
9	Emergency Hospital and Central Dispensary,	416 10th, N.W.,
10	Epiphany Church (P. E.) Home,	1319 H, N.W.,	18	17
11	Foundling Hospital,	15th, between R and S,
12	Freedmen's Hospital,	5th and Boundary, N.W.,	1723	125
13	Garfield Hospital,	10th and Boundary, N.W.,
14	German Orphan Asylum,	Good Hope Road, Anacostia,	35
15	Government Hospital for the Insane,	Nichols Avenue, Anacostia,	1341	1040
16	Home for the Aged (Little Sisters): Department for Whites,	3d and H, N.E.,	200
	Department for Colored,	2d and H, N.E.,
17	Homoeopathic Dispensary,	709 G, N.W.,
18	Homoeopathic Hospital,	520 1d, N.W.,	10	8
19	House of Mercy,	2418 K, N.W.,
20	House of the Good Shepherd,	1017 9th, N.W.,	24	18
21	Industrial Home School,	High Street, Georgetown,	121	72
22	Lenthal Home for Widows,	19th and G, N.W.,	24	24
23	Lincoln Mission Day Nursery and Kindergarten,	1424 11th, N.W.,
24	Louise Home,	Massachusetts Ave. and 15th, N.W.,	40	40
25	Metropolitan Industrial School,	H, near 19th, N.W.,
26	National Home for Colored Women and Children,	8th and Boundary, N.W.,	159
27	Night Lodging House,	12th, near Pennsylvania Ave.,
28	Poor Children's Country Home,	Pierce's Mill Road,
29	Providence Hospital,	2d and D, S.E.,	1319	121
30	Reform School for Boys,	Mount Lincoln,	243	153
31	St. Ann's Infant Asylum,	2400 K, N.W.,	125	110
32	St. Joseph's Male Orphan Asylum,	H, between 9th and 10th, N.W.,	100
33	St. Mary's Industrial School,
34	St. Rose's Industrial School,	1023 G, N.W.,	47
35	St. Vincent's Female Orphan Asylum,	10th and G, N.W.,	114
36	Seamen's Retreat,	8th and L, S.E.,
37	Soldiers' Home,	7th Street Road,	500
38	United States Jail,	10th and B, S.E.,	1969	171
39	United States Naval Hospital,	Penn'a Ave., bet. 9th and 10th, S.E.,	7
40	Washington Asylum: Almshouse,	19th and C, S.E.,	2459	..
	Hospital,	127
	Workhouse,	68
41	Washington City Orphan Asylum,	14th and S, N.W.,	174
42	Washington Eye and Ear Infirmary,	1325 H, N.W.,	160
43	Woman's Christian Home,	13th and S, N.W.,
44	Women's Dispensary,	925 10th, N.W.,	76

NOTES.

The numbers refer to the numbers prefixed, in the first column, to the institutions.

3. 1,969 out-patients treated in dispensary, in addition.
5. Furnishes rooms only, except in extreme cases.
6. 900 out-patients treated in dispensary, in addition.
11. Not completed.
18. Congress, at its last session, appropriated \$15,000 for a site and building for this hospital.
19. For fallen women and infants.
22. Furnishes rooms only, at nominal rent.
24. For gentlewomen over sixty years of age.
26. 65 women, 94 children.
28. Open from June to September, each year.
31. Children in this asylum, on arriving at six years of age, are sent to Nos. 32 and 35 of this list.
35. Partially supported by pay-school department.
43. 36 women, 40 children.

SOCIETIES.— Besides the institutions contained in the foregoing list, the following benevolent societies are maintained in Washington, with others which cannot be named here for want of space: American Association of the Red Cross (parent society), 947 T Street; American Colonization Society, 450 Pennsylvania Avenue, N.W.; Associated Charities, 707 G Street, N.W.; Association of the Blue Anchor; Bakers' Benevolent Society; Butchers' Benevolent Society, 8th and E Streets, N.W.; Charity Organization Society, 9th and D Streets, N.W.; German Benevolent Society, 604 11th Street, N.W.; Grand Army of the Republic, 9th and D Streets, N.W.; Gruetli Verein (Swiss), St. George's Hall; Hebrew Fuel Society; Italian Benevolent Society, 8th and E Streets, N.W.; Ladies' Lutheran Church Society, 606 11th Street, N.W.; Ladies' Union, 1116 13th Street, N.W.; Newsboys' Aid Society; St. Vincent de Paul Society (eight subdivisions); Société Française de Bienfaisance, K Street, near 14th, N.W.; Swiss Benevolent Association, Cosmopolitan Hall; United States Marine Service, 1421 G Street, N.W.; Washington Hibernian Benevolent Society; Washington Humane Society, 1410 New York Avenue; Woman's Exchange, 11th Street, west of 15th; Women's Christian Association, 13th and D Streets; Women's Christian Temperance Union, 516 8th Street, N.W.; Young Catholics' Friend Society (eight subdivisions).

FLORIDA.

No report received.

GEORGIA.

HON. GUSTAVUS J. ORR, Atlanta.—To give a full account of the many charities of the State, including all of a private nature and all confined to particular localities, would require much time, and, if the account was accurate and full, the gathering up of many facts and figures. We have a lunatic asylum at Milledgeville, supported by an annual appropriation of about \$160,000. This institution is generally believed by the public to be conducted on an approved plan. There is an academy for the blind at Macon, which is an admirably managed institution, the annual appropriation being about \$16,000. The same appropriation is made for the deaf and dumb at Cave Spring. There are orphan asylums at Augusta, at Savannah, at Macon, at Decatur (six miles distant from Atlanta), and perhaps elsewhere in the State, all or most of which are supported by the different churches. A noble charity of the city of Atlanta is the Atlanta Hospital and Benevolent Home, an organization effected on a small scale, some fifteen years since by the ladies of Atlanta. A building, not imposing, but well adapted to its purpose, was purchased. For a long time, all the current expenses of this refuge for the sick, and temporary shelter for destitute and helpless ones, were met by voluntary contributions. It is now sustained by municipal appropriations.

There are many other enterprises for the benefit of the unfortunate, of which I cannot now give an account, as I have not the data before me. In the State institutions first referred to, departments for colored inmates are provided for by statute.

ILLINOIS.

MR. J. W. WHIPP, Springfield.—The State of Illinois maintains four hospitals for the insane, three charitable educational institutions for the deaf and dumb, the blind, and the feeble-minded, a home for soldiers' orphans, a charitable eye and ear infirmary, and a State reform school, all under the jurisdiction of the State Board of Public Charities; also, two penitentiaries, two normal universities, and a technological school, known as the Industrial University.

The total cost of maintenance of the ten institutions under the care of the board, for the year ending Sept. 30, 1884, was \$741,040.90, in addition to which there was paid for repairs, improvements, and the erection of new buildings, \$526,016.90, making the entire outlay for the year \$1,267,057.80, of which the State furnished

from its own treasury \$1,198,584.49, there being no charge against any citizen of the State for board, tuition, or treatment in any one of these ten institutions. The average number of inmates was 3,702; and the average per capita cost of support, \$200.06.

The number of counties in the State is one hundred and two. All but ten of them own almshouses and county farms. In five of the remainder there is an almshouse owned by some private person who receives and cares for paupers at the expense of the county. There are but three counties in which each town takes care of its own poor. The number of paupers in these almshouses is about 4,500. All of them are inspected regularly by the board.

In the county jails, the average number of prisoners at any one time is about 750, representing more than ten times as many commitments. These are also inspected by the board.

In the House of Correction of the city of Chicago, which is a municipal prison, there are 750 prisoners. In the State penitentiaries there are 2,150 more. The total number of prisoners in the State is over 3,600.

The number of persons cared for in private charitable institutions is also about 3,600. We have, therefore, in the State an aggregate of between 15,000 and 16,000 persons in institutions of some description, private or public, charitable or penal.

We estimate the entire cost of providing for the wants of this army of dependants and delinquents in the past year at \$3,500,000, including \$1,240,000 for care of paupers in almshouses and out-door relief; \$600,000 for the support of private charitable institutions; and \$400,000 for our penitentiaries. A more exact statement would probably increase rather than diminish this figure. The claim for relief is constantly growing. To take one illustration only, the number of persons adjudged to be insane in our county courts during the twelve months ending March 31, 1885, was only a few short of 1,400.

We have to chronicle the destruction by fire of one of the detached buildings of the Kankakee Insane Hospital, and the loss of seven-year lives by suffocation.

The session of the legislature has not yet been brought to a close, and it is impossible to say what new laws will be enacted. There are bills pending for the revision of the Lunacy Act; for the adoption of the indeterminate sentence (as it is improperly called); for the establishment of a female prison and reformatory similar to that of Indiana; and for the creation of a soldiers' home.

On the 9th of December last, a conference of officers of prisons and reformatories assembled in Chicago, which continued in session for three days. Sixteen States were represented at it; and the discussions have been handsomely printed in a pamphlet of one hundred and seventy-five pages, which can be obtained from Mr. Charles E. Felton, superintendent of the Chicago House of Correction.

INDIANA.

Rev. O. C. McCULLOCH, Indianapolis.—In Indiana there is no State Board of Charities. There is a Board of Trustees of Benevolent Institutions appointed by the governor. During the winter, the following new legislation was had:—

1. An act making it unlawful for any person, firm, or corporation, engaged in manufacturing iron, steel, nails, machinery, or tobacco, to employ or keep at work any child under twelve years of age; or for manufacturers to keep any child under twelve at work for more than eight hours a day.

2. An act empowering county commissioners to provide suitable asylums for children and to purchase ground for orphan homes. This is an amendment to the original act providing for county homes.

3. An act empowering voluntary associations to establish homes for the aged.

4. An act for the education of pauper children in asylums, whenever a sufficient number is in any such asylum: otherwise, they are to be taught in the public schools.

5. An act separating the Soldiers' Orphans' Home and the Institute for Feeble-minded, at Knightstown: they have heretofore been under the same management and in the same building.

The number of inmates of the State institutions is as follows: in the State prisons, 1,269; Reform School, 440; Women's Reformatory, penal department, 50, reform department, 142; insane asylums, 1,450; Deaf and Dumb Institute, 336; Blind Asylum, 120; Soldiers' Orphans' Home, 145; Institute for the Feeble-minded, 88. [Mr. McCulloch does not state whether these are the numbers during the year or at some specified time.]

The cost of caring for the State prisons was \$178,240; of the other institutions named, \$467,433; total, \$645,673. The estimated cost of caring for the county poor is \$665,941, and of prisoners, etc., in jails, \$150,113.

The State is building three additional insane asylums. There are, it is thought, 1,500 insane now in county asylums or at their homes.

These hospitals are at Richmond, Logansport, and Evansville. For detailed information concerning them, reference is made to Dr. J. G. Rogers, medical engineer.

Dr. J. G. ROGERS, Logansport.—In 1880 there were 3,530 insane persons in the State, exclusive of idiots. Of these, 1,200 were in the State Hospital at Indianapolis, 800 were in the county poorhouses, and the remainder were in private charge or vagrant at large. In the year 1883, the capacity of the State Hospital was increased to 1,420; and the legislature directed the construction of three additional hospitals, which are in process of erection, under the control of the governor and a non-partisan board of commissioners. The legislature has been prompt to make the necessary appropriations, to the amount of \$1,163,000. The aggregate capacity of the three institutions will be 1,034; but more can be accommodated under pressing necessity, without serious disadvantage.

In construction and arrangement, the corridor system has been avoided altogether. Day and night apartments are, as a rule, entirely separated,—in some instances, on the same floor; but, in others, the night rooms are above those used by day. Day rooms are uniformly large, rectangular, well lighted, without recesses or alcoves, but with one or two small retiring rooms attached. For the quieter class of patients, they are fitted with large open fireplaces. Dormitories vary in size from single rooms to rooms for twenty or more patients. It is intended that all epileptic and suicidal patients shall sleep in large dormitories, under constant special supervision. Permanent window guards of any sort are avoided; but provision is made for the use of portable screens, whenever necessary. The foregoing principles are applied in each of the hospitals. They differ, however, materially in architectural arrangement.

In the institution at Richmond, what has been popularly known as the "cottage plan" has been developed as far as practicable or desirable, and to a greater extent than ever before in any public institution of the kind; that is to say, most of the buildings are small, with homelike exteriors and interiors, and are widely detached each from the others.

The hospital near Logansport consists of a series of detached pavilions, fewer in number, but of larger size than those at Richmond. The arrangement of the buildings in a formal straight line, and their approach to architectural uniformity, will give more of an institutional aspect to this hospital.

The institution at Evansville presents an arrangement of wings or

pavilions radiating from a central block, and directly connected thereto. Provision has been made for convenient and inexpensive expansion in each institution, whenever in the future it may become necessary.

IOWA.

JENNIE McCOWEN, M.D., Davenport.—The State institutions of Iowa are ten in number; namely, the Institution for the Deaf and Dumb, the Institution for the Feeble-minded, the College for the Blind, the Orphans' Home, the State Industrial School, two penitentiaries, two hospitals for the insane, and a third in process of construction.

The Institution for the Deaf and Dumb, which will doubtless compare favorably with other institutions of this class, admits pupils between the ages of nine and twenty-one. The regular course of instruction covers eight years, but those who are capable of profiting by it are allowed to take an additional three years' course preparatory to entering the National Deaf-mute College at Washington. Iowa, at present, has a greater number of students in attendance upon that college than any other State. In the industrial department, shoemaking, carpentry, printing, and dressmaking are taught. As there are still between five and six hundred deaf-mutes of school age unprovided for, an effort was made at the last session of the legislature to secure an appropriation for a new institution. This failed, but an appropriation was made for the enlargement of the present institution to accommodate 250 pupils.

The Institution for the Feeble-minded, commencing with a single inmate in 1876, in the old buildings abandoned by the Soldiers' Orphans' Home, has grown to be one of the most important in the State. The general arrangement of the new buildings is around a hollow square, with the boys' and girls' departments entirely separate. The plan has been only partially carried out, there being as yet but two new buildings, both of brick, one for boys and one for girls. A central or administrative building is now in process of erection, to cost, when completed, \$75,000. A water tower, 120 feet high, has just been finished, at a cost of \$10,000. A farm of 180 acres affords an opportunity for teaching the older boys farm and garden work, and has proved a source of revenue. A broom-shop and a shoe-shop are in successful operation, in which the results have surpassed the most sanguine expectations. The educational advantages afforded are similar to those of other institutions of the kind:

instruction in the common school branches, where that is practicable; a course of physical training; and the cultivation of habits of cleanliness, propriety, and self-reliance. The institution is also custodial, providing a home for helpless imbeciles as well as for adults whose labor may be directed, under skilful managers, to relieve the expense of their keeping.

Our College for the Blind has been recognized by the National Commissioner of Education as imparting instruction of a higher grade than any similar institution in the country. The course of study, which covers twelve years, has, in addition to the customary primary and grammar grades, a senior course of three years, in which instruction is given in algebra, geometry, rhetoric, logic, chemistry, zoölogy, mental and moral philosophy, English and American literature, and civil government. The musical department will compare favorably with that of any similar institution. In the industrial department, bead-work, cane-seating, knitting, crocheting, fancy work, hand and machine sewing, mattress-making, broom-making, carpet-weaving, netting of hammocks and horse-nets, and weaving door-mats, are in successful operation. While the element of profit to the institution has been regarded as of secondary importance, this school of trades has been more than self-supporting. With very few exceptions, all who have gone out from the school have been fitted to take their place as useful and cheerful members of society; and about one-third are known to be making their own living. The Nineteenth General Assembly made an appropriation of \$1,000 for the purpose of employing an expert oculist to examine the eyes of the pupils, and operate on such as were likely to be benefited thereby. The good results were so obvious that the Twentieth General Assembly appropriated \$1,500 for continuing the work. The report of the oculists shows that, of the 143 persons examined, one-third were considered subjects for surgical interference, — about one-half of them for increase of vision, the other half for relief of pain. Another third of the whole number were subjects for medical treatment and the adjustment of glasses, while the remaining third only were decided to be beyond the reach of proper medical attention. This report has in it suggestions to the practical philanthropist, which cannot be here considered.

The Orphans' Home, originally a home for soldiers' orphans, was opened in 1876 to all indigent children. It is on the cottage plan. There are now fourteen cottages, of brick, those on the north side for boys, and those for girls on the south side of the administration

building, and connected with it and with each other by a covered walk; a nursery for young children of both sexes; and a hospital, fortunately but seldom occupied. The school, which is well graded, is in session five and a half hours each day, five days in the week, and nine months in the year, and is attended by all children six years old and upward. All children in good health and old enough are required to work part of every day. There are at present 336 inmates. Boys are not retained after fifteen years of age, nor girls after sixteen.

By an act of the last legislature, the name of the State Reform School was changed to that of the State Industrial School. The boys' department is at Eldora, that for girls at Mitchellville. Children between the ages of seven and sixteen are received by commitment from the circuit, district, superior, or police courts, and are retained until they reach their majority, unless sooner released by order of the board of trustees or pardoned by the governor. The school is conducted on the half-time plan. One-half of the inmates are in the school-room during the forenoon of each day; while the other half are in the shops, kitchen, bakery, laundry, or elsewhere, as occasion demands. In the afternoon, they exchange places.

Mrs. Angie P. Lewelling, the efficient and lamented superintendent of the department for girls, who so acceptably represented the institution in the National Conference of 1882, was obliged last year by failing health to resign her position, and has since passed to her reward. In her death, the children were personally bereft of a friend who was to them a mother. The institution suffered the loss of an efficient and conscientious officer, wise and honorable in the government of those committed to her care; and the State, a woman who did the Commonwealth noble service in lifting up its wayward girls to lives of future usefulness and happiness. One member of the board of trustees of this institution is a woman, Mrs. Benton J. Hall, of Burlington.

The Penitentiary at Fort Madison has, within the last biennial period, contained 719 different convicts. The number at the date of the last report was 378. Their labor is let to contractors. Boots and shoes, horse collars and saddlery, farming tools, chairs, and clothing are manufactured. The excellence of the work is such that, in order to meet the increasing demand for these goods, the contractors have been compelled to erect buildings outside the walls and employ free labor. There is, however, a growing feeling against contract labor, and in favor of the surplus earnings of the convict

being sent to his family, if he has a family dependent on him, or reserved for his own use at the expiration of his term of imprisonment. An evening school is maintained the greater part of the year. The physical condition of the prisoners, owing to the excellent personal and prison sanitation, is highly creditable to the institution.

The Additional Penitentiary at Anamosa is still unfinished. The cell-house is completed, lighted with electric lights, thoroughly ventilated, and is said altogether to be one of the finest cell-rooms in the United States. The whole force of convict labor (375) is employed in the construction. The prison, when completed, in addition to accommodation for 800 male convicts and shops for their employment, will include a woman's prison and an asylum for insane convicts. Both of these structures will be separate from and outside of the main wall of the prison proper. Female convicts are now cared for in one of the shop buildings, Mrs. E. I. Wood, matron. The total number from both penitentiaries is but thirteen. In the number of women prisoners, Iowa stands thirty-third in the list of States; while the ratio of her female prisoners to the female population is the smallest in the Union. The chaplain of this penitentiary has for years been a woman, Mrs. Anna C. Merrill, whose good work merits the continuous recognition accorded to it.

The Benedict Home, a private institution for the custody and reformation of erring women (named in honor of its projector, Mrs. M. A. Benedict), was established and is maintained by the Women's Christian Temperance Unions of the State. The last General Assembly made an appropriation of \$5,000 to enable them to enlarge the building. During the past year, 25 women, whose ages ranged from thirty-one down to thirteen, have sought this refuge: 6 were restored to their friends, 3 have been married, 2 died, 1 was transferred to an insane asylum, and 5 have gone back to a life of shame.

A Prisoners' Aid Association was organized in November, 1883. Both penitentiaries, both branches of the State Industrial School, and the Benedict Home are represented in its management. The last General Assembly appropriated \$2,000 to aid the objects of the organization.

The agitation throughout the State in regard to adequate provision for the insane, spoken of in the last report to this body, resulted in an appropriation of \$25,000 for a cottage at Independence, to accommodate 100 patients; \$100,000 for an additional wing to the hospital at Mt. Pleasant, to accommodate 200 men, with the understanding that the next General Assembly will appropriate a like sum

for a similar wing for women; and \$150,000 to begin the construction of an additional hospital in the south-western part of the State, for 800 or 1,000 patients. This is to be on the cottage plan, with a central administrative building, three stories high. The buildings are to be of brick, with stone trimmings. Five hundred and thirteen acres of land have been purchased, for \$30,000; and the central building is in process of erection. The additions at Mt. Pleasant and Independence are already completed and occupied.

We are still without a State Board of Charities. Hence, it has been impossible to collect complete and reliable statistics of county, municipal, and private charities. Our jails and poorhouses are probably on a par with the average in other States. Although pauperism is in its infancy with us, as compared with older States, our generous distribution of the poor fund does little to discourage its increase.

In several of the larger cities, Women's Christian Associations are doing a good work; and, in a number of places, sewing-schools for neglected girls are in successful operation. The Woman's Christian Temperance Union has a State department devoted to jail and prison work, which line of activity is projected through 230 local unions in the State. The Woman's Relief Corps, auxiliary to the Grand Army of the Republic, has a central organization, from which 34 local organizations radiate.

The charity associations of the various churches, lodges, etc., are active in Iowa, as elsewhere. I have been unable to gather information as to any private charitable institution except the Cook Home for Aged and Friendless Women, at Davenport. This is a comparatively new institution, having been opened October, 1883. It was built and is maintained in comfort by the legacy of Mrs. Clarissa C. Cook.

Iowa is expending on her charitable and correctional institutions, for their support, about half a million dollars per annum. The Twentieth General Assembly appropriated for building and other special uses more than \$700,000 in addition. The average number of beneficiaries is 600 in the penitentiaries, and something more than 2,000 in the other institutions of the State.

KANSAS.

No report received.

KENTUCKY.

Mr. P. CALDWELL, Louisville.—The legislature has passed an act to create a reformatory prison for young men under twenty-six years of age, convicted of a first offence. It is located at Eddyville,

and is now building. A colored department has been added to our State Blind Asylum. At Danville, a building has been erected exclusively for colored children who are deaf and dumb. The prison at Frankfort is now employing about 600 men within the walls: no prisoners are sent to work outside the prisons any more. The spirit of philanthropy and Christianity is growing slowly, but surely; and we hope to live to see the day when the weak, erring, and unfortunate in our State shall be as humanely cared for as it is possible for any State or people to do.

LOUISIANA.

No report received.

MAINE.

Rev. Dr. MASON, Fryeburg.—An effort to establish a State Board of Public Charities, which was recommended and urged by the governor, failed, owing partly to want of appreciation and partly to the fear of incurring expense. The near future is quite sure to witness the creation of such a board.

Dr. Mason furnishes statistics of the several institutions, which show the total number of inmates to be about 800, of whom 460 are in the insane asylum. The cost to the State of all the institutions except that for the insane, which is not given by him, does not exceed \$50,000 per annum. The prison is self-supporting, except the salaries of the officers. A new building is to be provided for the Industrial School for Girls, chiefly through the munificence of benevolent individuals. The Reform School, he says, "means business, and is doing it, but more slowly than some of its most intelligent officers and friends wish." The Asylum for the Insane is overcrowded, and there is talk of enlarging it or building a new institution. The other institution maintained by this State is the Military and Naval Orphan Asylum, at Bath.

MARYLAND.

The report from Maryland was carefully prepared and distributed in pamphlet form among the members of the Conference. It was signed by G. S. Griffith, Judge William A. Fisher, John Morris, M.D., and Wilmot Johnson. The following is a full synopsis of this report:—

Maryland, with a population of 1,000,000, has 96 charitable organizations and 22 almshouses, 7 reformatory and 26 penal institutions, including the county jails.

Total appropriations for support Public Institutions by City, . . .	\$235,980.60
" " " " " " " " State, . . .	154,900.00
Estimated private charity,	290,000.00
	<hr/> \$680,880.60

We have no regularly appointed State Board of Charities, its place being supplied, however, to some extent, by a volunteer charity organization, supported by the contributions of the benevolent citizens of Baltimore.

The Charity Organization Society of Baltimore was formed for the purpose of preventing an overlapping of charity and to promote a more systematic method of extending help to the needy. It is still in its infancy, having only been in operation during the past three years. Judge William A. Fisher is the president, and Charles J. Bonaparte, Esq., chairman of the Board of Managers.

The Baltimore Association for the Improvement of the Condition of the Poor has been in successful operation for the past thirty-five years. Its object and design is to discourage indiscriminate almsgiving, street-begging, pauperism, and idleness. During the past year, it has expended \$24,000 and relieved 11,517 families. Mr. E. Otis Hinkley is president.

The Society of St. Vincent de Paul was established in the city of Baltimore in the year 1864. The poor are relieved without reference to race, color, or religion. Mr. F. W. Dammann is president.

Bayview Asylum is our city poorhouse, well kept, containing an average of 720 inmates, more than half of whom are of foreign birth. In the whole State, we have about 1,520 paupers. A new building has recently been erected for the insane, containing all the modern appointments of a well-regulated hospital, and with the capacity to accommodate 300 inmates. At present, it contains 200. A medical superintendent has recently been appointed especially for this department, rendering the institution a place for treatment and cure, and not merely for the safe keeping of the insane. Captain Bennett is the superintendent.

The Home of the Little Sisters of the Poor, a Catholic institution, was established in 1869. The inmates consist of aged poor, both male and female. The number in the institution is 200.

The Home of the Friendless is designed for the care of waifs, illegitimate or orphan children, who are kept in the home until they can be placed out in suitable families. It has been in operation about thirty years, and has sheltered 1,600 children. During the present year, they have had 206. Mrs. James E. Atkinson is president.

The Child's Nursery and Hospital is in the city of Baltimore : it is a Protestant institution devoted to the care of infants and sick or crippled children. It has been in operation about eight years, and is governed by a board of lady managers, of which Mrs. Charles F. Bevan is president. Present number of children, 38.

The St. Vincent's Foundling Asylum is a Catholic institution for children under seven years of age, and is particularly designed for illegitimates, waifs, and infants deserted by parents and found by the officers on the streets.

The St. Elizabeth's Home is designed for the care of small, neglected colored children under five years of age, and is under the care of the Franciscan Sisters.

The Blind Asylum and the Institute for Deaf and Dumb are State institutions, the former in the city of Baltimore and the latter in Frederick City.

The Home for Incurables is a benevolent institution, recently established in the city of Baltimore, whose operations promise to be very beneficial.

Thomas Wilson's Sanitarium for Children was founded by the endowment of Thomas Wilson, who bequeathed the sum of \$500,000 for its establishment. Francis T. King is president. We have, also, a number of orphan asylums of Protestant, Catholic, and Hebrew denominations, both English and German ; also eye and ear infirmaries, hospitals, free dispensaries with hospital relief associations, sanitariums, and free summer excursions for the poor.

The Henry Watson Children's Aid Society is a temporary asylum for all truant and neglected children brought in by the police, and those committed to its care by the courts and magistrates. Mr. John Curlett is president. It was organized in 1860, and 2,053 children have been under its protection : 1,739 have been placed out by the society, apprenticed until they are eighteen years of age, not as servants or common drudges, but as members of the family. Mr. William C. Palmer, the agent, states that, after an experience of nearly twenty-five years in the work, he has never heard of one of the children cared for by this society occupying a felon's cell. It was endowed by the late Henry Watson in 1872 with the munificent gift of \$100,000 ; and, in honor to the donor, its name was then changed from Children's Aid Society to the Henry Watson Children's Aid Society.

The Society for the Protection of Children from Cruelty and Immorality, of Baltimore city, was incorporated in 1878, and is supported entirely by voluntary contributions. Since its incorporation,

this society has rescued more than four hundred children from abodes of destitution, vice, and crime, or from the cruelty of brutal masters, and placed them in Christian homes or asylums. Mr. Joseph Merrefield is president.

The Boys' Home was organized in 1865. It is a home for poor boys, where those who are willing and able to contribute toward their own support find shelter and proper guardianship, and where employment at fair wages is secured for them in stores, offices, and at mechanical work. They are taught to read, write, and cipher; to be economical, cleanly, virtuous, industrious, and self-reliant. It is supported principally by voluntary contributions. The receipts for last year from all sources were \$11,899.83, of which the boys contributed for board \$6,451.18, for clothing \$278.11. The practical results of this Home have been very encouraging. Since its organization, 1,206 boys have been sheltered, many of whom have become men of influence, and are now occupying prominent positions in our city. The present number in the Home is 85. Mr. J. Q. A. Herring is president.

The Baltimore Manual Labor School for Indigent Boys was incorporated in the year 1842. It contains at present 41 boys. This is neither a penal nor reformatory institution. The directors receive only such boys as are not known to be vicious, and only orphans or half-orphans, whose surviving parent or guardian is unable to educate and maintain them. They are given a plain education, and taught farming or trades. Mr. James Carey is president.

St. Mary's Industrial School, a Catholic institution, containing 450 boys, is situated on a farm of one hundred acres, about three miles from Baltimore, and is under the charge of Brother Alexius. Archbishop James Gibbons is president. The boys committed to its care are not all placed there merely for crime, but many on account of destitution and to prevent crime. The inmates are instructed in their religious faith, and also receive a plain, practical education. They are also taught trades, without which any reformatory system would be valueless. After a long probation, those who are thought strong enough mentally, morally, and physically, are transferred to the St. James Home in the city of Baltimore, under the charge of the Xavierian Brothers. The superintendent secures situations for them in workshops and other places. Thus, they are enabled to earn their daily bread, while still the protecting arm of the institution is around them.

The House of Refuge, two miles from Baltimore, in a high and healthy location, is a reformatory for juvenile male delinquents who

become too insubordinate to be governed by their parents or guardians. It also receives those who are sentenced by the criminal courts and magistrates for committing public offences; and since the reception of the first inmate, September, 1835, 3,671 inmates have been committed to the institution. They stay till they are twenty-one years of age, unless otherwise provided for by the Board of Managers in consideration of great moral improvement. The boys are taught various branches of trade. The number in the institution at present is 283. Both the City Council and State legislature make an annual appropriation for its support. Dr. J. J. Graves is president; and R. J. Kirkwood, superintendent.

The House of Reformation and Instruction for Colored Boys was established twelve years ago, at Cheltenham. It is supported by the city and State, and is designed for colored boys who are committed by the courts, magistrates, or on the complaints of parents or guardians that they are incorrigible. They receive instruction in the lower branches of education, and also in farming and some of the trades. This reformatory is without bars or bolts, and presents no appearance of a prison. The school is graded into five classes, each one occupying a separate building, which is under the charge of a teacher who strives to conduct it on family principles. The average number of boys in the institution is 240. Mr. Josiah Waggner is superintendent. It is governed by a Board of Managers who appoint the superintendent, officers, and teachers. Mr. Enoch Pratt, of Baltimore, is the president, and generously gave the farm of eight hundred acres on which the institution now stands.

The Industrial Home for Colored Girls was incorporated two years ago, in the city of Baltimore, and is the only institution of the kind in the State for colored girls. It is designed for the care of those under eighteen years of age, who may be committed by the courts or magistrates, or who are incorrigible and beyond the control of parents or guardians. Its object is to reform and prepare them to earn their living as household servants, cooks, or laundry women. Thirty-five have been placed out in good homes. This institution is one of the most economically managed in the State, and at present contains 45 inmates. G. S. Griffith is president.

The Female House of Refuge was opened June 8, 1868, and is designed to rescue young girls between twelve and eighteen years of age, who have lost their virtue, or who are in imminent danger of being lured to a profligate course, also from vagrancy and exposure to evil influences. At present, it contains 30 inmates. The ordinary

branches of a common school education are taught them, also habits of industry. Rev. Franklin Wilson, D.D., is president.

The Home of the Good Shepherd, organized in the year 1844, is a Catholic institution, under the charge of the Sisters, and is intended for fallen women and girls who have been led astray. They are taught needlework, housework, cooking, etc., thus becoming prepared to earn an honest, respectable living. A Protestant institution of the same kind is established on Exeter Street.

We are happy to report that, while Baltimore has greatly increased in population during the past eight or ten years, her prison population has strikingly diminished. This will be seen from the following figures: At the close of the fiscal year 1878, the Maryland Penitentiary had 927 convicts. At present there are 500. In 1875 there were 14,130 commitments to the city jail; in the last year, 9,322, including all those who were sent to the House of Correction after their trial. Two-thirds of those committed to the city jail and House of Correction for vagrancy and drunkenness belonged neither to the city nor State. At the present time, the daily average number of prisoners and convicts in the whole State is 1,454.

The Maryland Penitentiary, the only one in the State, contains 500 convicts. Of these, 465 are male and 35 female. Its administration and discipline, under Gen. John W. Horn, are excellent.

The congregate system prevails. Every convict occupies a separate cell at night; but, during the day, they work together in the same shops, eat in the same dining-room, and attend service and Sunday-school in the chapel. And, as useful, active labor is a constituent part of all reformatory discipline, they are all kept at daily employment, most of them at contract work. This makes the institution not only self-sustaining, but has enabled it to pay into the State treasury \$7,515.15 over and above all expenses; yet the men are not overtaxed. In addition to their daily task, some do overwork, for which they are paid; and, by this means, they are enabled to send some support to their families. The contracts are given, under proper restrictions, to kind, humane business men, and cannot be denounced as managed in this State. The convicts are taught useful trades, which do not conflict with outside parties, and are treated with humane consideration as men, and not as mere mechanical tools for accomplishing work. Sunday-school services are held in the chapel every Sunday morning at 9 o'clock, and religious services in the afternoon, at 3 o'clock. Mr. Henry Seim is president of the Board of Directors, who are appointed by his Excellency the Governor of the State.

The city jail is a very substantial building, but will soon be enlarged by an addition for the female department and a hospital. The entire main building will be exclusively used for a better classification of the male prisoners. It contains 417 inmates. As far as possible, the sentenced prisoners are kept employed. It affords us great pleasure to be able to speak in the highest terms of the superior management, discipline, and sanitary condition of this institution, under the control of Mr. J. Frank Morrison. Mr. James E. Tate is president of the Board of Visitors.

The Maryland House of Correction, of which Gen. F. D. Bond is superintendent, is located at Bridewell, sixteen miles from Baltimore. The whole number sent there in the last year was 608; present number of inmates, 318. Nearly two-thirds of these are vagrants from foreign lands or other States. Many of the prisoners are employed on the large farm connected with the institution. The others are at work on an ore bank near the premises. It is governed by a Board of Directors appointed by the governor, of which the Board of Public Works are members.

The Maryland Prisoners' Aid Association was organized in 1869, and incorporated in 1873. As the name indicates, its plans are to aid prisoners. From the commencement, it was indorsed by the judges of the criminal courts and prison officials; and, by the scope and influence of its work, it has now achieved an eminent rank among the philanthropic societies of the State. It is supported by voluntary contributions.

Number of discharged prisoners aided in the last year:—

Shoes, clothing, and pecuniary aid to	539
Sent home or out of the city	174
Meals and lodgings to	119
Secured employment for	116

In addition, many hundreds in the prisons were aided in various ways,—stationery supplied, letters written, cases investigated, sick ministered to, etc. G. S. Griffith is the president; and Rev. Louis F. Zinkhan, general agent.

In presenting this report, the committee would particularly call attention to the fact that the beneficial work done in Maryland has resulted in a marked diminution of crime and in the moral improvement of the criminal and pauper classes of the State.

MASSACHUSETTS.

Hon. CHARLES F. DONNELLY.—The legislation of 1884, so fully described in our report to the Conference at St. Louis, has not

needed to be supplemented as yet by much additional law-making; and the record of legislative changes in 1885 is almost nothing. A few minor amendments of existing laws have been enacted; and all the new establishments provided for in 1884, by enactment, have been carried forward toward completion. The Massachusetts Reformatory has been occupied for six months in the prison buildings at Concord, and now contains about four hundred inmates, who are beginning to receive systematic school instruction. The method of grading and of marking is much the same as at the Elmira Reformatory; but Massachusetts lacks the "indeterminate sentence" law, which is regarded as an important part of the Elmira system.

The new State Workhouse at Bridgewater has been completed, and is now in full operation, with good results. The State Prison has been removed to its old quarters at Charlestown (now a part of Boston), and contains less than five hundred convicts. The State Reformatory at Westboro' has begun to occupy a new location there, and its new buildings will be completed in 1886. The buildings of the Homœopathic Hospital for the Insane at Westboro' are undergoing alterations, and will be occupied some time in 1886. The other State establishments remain essentially unchanged in their location and buildings. The appointment of women as physicians in the State lunatic hospitals has been made in all except that at Worcester, and the result thus far has been satisfactory. Dr. Earle, who for more than twenty years has been superintendent of the Northampton Hospital, will retire in July.

The returns concerning the in-door and out-door relief of the poor in the three hundred and fifty cities and towns of Massachusetts, for the year ending April 1, 1885, show a large increase in the cost of pauperism in the State, as compared with the year immediately preceding. The net cost in the whole State for 1883-84 was about \$1,600,000; for the year 1884-85, it will apparently exceed \$1,700,000. Of this increase, from \$15,000 to \$20,000 seems to be in out-door relief, and upwards of \$60,000 in in-door relief. The latter is largely for the support of the chronic insane, whose number constantly and rapidly increases. The net cost just given is not the whole outlay for pauperism in Massachusetts, because it does not include what is paid from the State treasury. Adding this, the aggregate would exceed \$2,100,000 for the year 1884-85, or a little more than a dollar for each inhabitant, the population being now estimated at 2,075,000 persons.

The accumulation of the chronic insane continues, and causes an

apparent increase of permanent pauperism in Massachusetts. There is also an increase in out-door relief since last year, but not very large. The State is extending its system of out-door relief, and now has more children in families where board is paid than ever before. This fact shows itself in the annexed list of appropriations for 1885.

Upon the whole, the condition of the Massachusetts public charities is good, although several of the hospitals, etc., are too much crowded.

Appended will be found State appropriations thus far made in 1885; but, the legislature being still in session, additions may be made in the list.

SCHEDULE OF STATE APPROPRIATIONS IN 1885 FOR SUPPORT AND RELIEF OF THE POOR.

For full support in establishments,	\$363,000
Namely: for State poor in lunatic asylums,	136,000
State pupils at the Massachusetts School for the	
Feeble-minded,	15,000
State Almshouse at Tewksbury,	96,000
State Primary School at Monson,	51,000
State Workhouse at Bridgewater,	43,000
Foundling and neglected infants at the infant asylums,	12,000
Massachusetts Charitable Eye and Ear Infirmary,	10,000
For full support in families,	28,000
Namely: for foundlings and deserted children,	15,000
Indigent and neglected children,	13,000
For partial support or out-door relief,	64,000
Namely: for sick State poor in cities and towns,	42,500
Temporary support of State paupers by cities and	
towns,	15,000
Burial of State paupers by cities and towns,	6,500
For general administrative expenses,	73,000
Namely: for the State Board of Health, Lunacy, and Charity (ex-	
cluding the Health Department),	55,300
Removals and transportation of State paupers,	15,700
Management of cases of settlement and bastardy,	2,000
Aggregate appropriations,	528,000
Appropriations for State prisons and reformatories,	327,100
Namely: for State Prison for Men at Charlestown,	115,900
Massachusetts Reformatory at Concord,	100,000
Reformatory Prison for Women at Sherborn,	62,800
Lyman School for Boys at Westboro',	30,400
State Industrial School for Girls at Lancaster,	18,000

MICHIGAN.

Mr. W. J. BAXTER, Lansing.—The Board of Corrections and Charities prepared and presented to the legislature for consideration several important bills, among which the following may be mentioned as the principal : —

To amend and consolidate the laws governing prisons ; to provide for indeterminate sentences ; to remove the inspectors, warden, officers, etc., of prisons, as far as possible, from politics and political influences ; to provide for a board of pardons ; to provide for a State agent to look after and secure employment for discharged convicts ; to require that the plans for new jails be submitted to some competent authority for approval, and, after being built, to require approval by such authority before use ; to make the office of jailer more permanent and the officer only removable for cause ; to require all persons sentenced to jails to be sentenced to hard labor, and to provide facilities for carrying out the sentence ; to provide for district workhouses, so as to relieve the prisons of short-time convicts ; to provide an asylum for the idiotic and feeble-minded ; to amend the poor-laws, so as to do away with the evils of inconsiderate and pauperizing out-door relief ; and to amend and make more efficient the county agency system, for placing in homes and looking after dependent children. Doubtless, the board attempted and expected too much. As yet, none of these bills have become laws ; and many of them, as now pending before the legislature, have been so changed as to be scarcely recognizable. A bill abolishing the board has already passed one branch of the legislature, and is pending in the other.

The wardens of both prisons have been changed since the last Conference. The Northern Asylum for the Insane, at Traverse City, and the Asylum for the Criminal Insane, at Ionia, will be completed and opened for the reception of patients during the year.

MINNESOTA.

Rev. H. H. HART, St. Paul.—The State Board of Corrections and Charities of Minnesota has completed its first two years of work. At the recent session of the legislature, the first biennial report of the board was presented, embracing a full description of almshouses, jails, and State institutions, with statistics of administration, finances, population, etc. The legislature, recognizing the importance of the work intrusted to the board, established it upon a permanent basis.

The board made eight recommendations for legislation, of which six were adopted; while the purpose of the other two will be measurably accomplished by the voluntary action of the managers of the State institutions.

Several important acts were passed, affecting the charities and corrections of the State. A commission was created to locate a third insane hospital, with the intention of perpetuating the policy thus far pursued, of providing for all the insane of the State in State institutions. On the 30th of September there were but 12 insane persons in the almshouses of the State. To carry out this intention, it has been necessary to adopt a very moderate scale of building expenditure. Two years ago, a detached ward was erected, adjacent to the St. Peter Hospital, to accommodate 100 patients, at a cost of \$25,000, or \$250 a bed. The experiment having proved satisfactory, the recent legislature made appropriations for three additional detached wards at St. Peter, and two at Rochester, which will provide adequately for 500 patients, at a cost of \$125,000.

A commission was established to locate a State public school for dependent children, and commence the erection of buildings therefor. This school is to be in imitation of the State public school of Michigan; and it is designed for the same purpose. The legislature also established a commission to locate a second State prison.

During the past year, the capacity of the School for Idiots and Imbeciles has been doubled, being now 100. The legislature made an appropriation for a custodial building, in connection with the institution. Provision was also made for the erection of a gymnasium and shops for the deaf and dumb, to replace the shops burned some time since.

In our report last year, reference was made to the fact that no change of superintendent in any State institution of Minnesota had occurred for ten years. We greatly regret that, for the first time in eleven years, a superintendent of one of our institutions has resigned. Dr. Knight, of the School for Idiots and Imbeciles, has decided to sever his connection with us, in order to join his mother in the Connecticut institution. Dr. Knight's father founded the institution, and handed it over to his son, under whose direction it has grown from an experiment to an established factor in the charitable work of the State. He is one of the few men specially qualified by education and experience for this work, and we can ill spare him.

The Board of Corrections and Charities is addressing itself chiefly to the work of laying foundations. Considerable time has been

given to the subject of jail architecture ; and a jail is now building in Otter Tail County, whose plan has the hearty approval of the board, and it is hoped that it will prove a marked improvement upon those hitherto built. An almshouse is in process of erection at St. Paul, which bids fair to rank with the best institutions of its kind.

Efforts are making, by co-operation with the officers of State institutions, to improve the methods of handling and accounting for public property.

The rapid growth of the adjacent cities of St. Paul and Minneapolis, which have increased from 90,000 to 200,000 inhabitants in the past five years, has called the attention of our citizens to the need of charity organization. A Charity Organization Society has been organized in Minneapolis. It was established by delegations from all the principal charities of the city, some twenty in number, and consists in the union of those societies for mutual co-operation. A Friendly Inn has been in successful operation during the past winter, and has aided greatly in diminishing vagrancy. In St. Paul, a Charity Organization Society has been established as an independent organization, which aims to secure the co-operation of all existing charities.

The Roman Catholic Church has recently dedicated a fine building for an orphan asylum in St. Paul. The Protestant Orphan Asylum is also to have a suitable building. In Minneapolis, the new Washburn Home is about to be erected, the late Hon. C. C. Washburn having left \$75,000 for a building, and \$300,000 for an endowment.

The State of Minnesota, with a population of 1,000,000, has now made provision for all its insane, for the deaf, the blind, the imbecile population, and her dependent and delinquent children. With added growth there will doubtless come a reformatory prison for young men, when the list of our benevolent and reformatory institutions will be complete.

In addition to the State Board of Corrections and Charities, there is a Lunacy Commission, of three physicians, who are doing valuable work in the study and criticism of the administration of our insane hospitals.

We hope to have the honor of entertaining the National Conference at our State capital next year, when we shall take pride in exhibiting our institutions, although they are young, and as yet lack the complete development of those in older States.

MISSISSIPPI.

No report received.

MISSOURI.

Rt. Rev. C. F. ROBERTSON, St. Louis.—The meeting of the Conference being so close to the session of the General Assembly of this State, the reports of the officers charged with the care of the public institutions, as well as the session acts, have not yet been published; and, therefore, the ordinary statements and tables cannot be given.

During the session of the legislature, a bill was passed enlarging the Lunatic Asylum at St. Joseph. An act was also passed, authorizing the construction of another penitentiary, suitable for the confinement of 1,500 prisoners. For this, \$20,000 were appropriated for the purchase of a site, and \$200,000 for construction. The site has not yet been chosen. A bill was introduced for the erection of a State reform school for juvenile offenders, at an outlay of not exceeding \$40,000; but this bill most unfortunately failed of passage.

Mr. HALEY.—Missouri has had no representative at these Conferences until about three years ago. At that time, the question of associated charities had received no attention in the State whatever; and the delegates were chiefly interested in that question, as they supposed the greatest need of the people lay in that direction. After the delegation returned, Bishop Robertson, Rabbi Sonneschein, and others, agitated the subject in the State. I called the attention of the superintendents of charitable institutions in our city to the fact that many cities were discussing associated boards of charity. I found that the Provident Association secured nearly all results attained by organization in other cities,—complete registration, a system of visitation, not by volunteer visitors, but by paid visitors employed by the superintendent at public expense. By common consent, these visitors had ready access to every other institution in the city. I believe, however, that the sentiment is growing in Missouri that there ought to be, and must be, some association of all the charitable institutions in the State. I am sure also that the labors of this Conference have done much to mitigate the condition of prisoners throughout the State. I do not know of a county that has not a jail; and this fact has been brought out, that, prior to the representation of Missouri in this Conference, the penitentiary at Jefferson City was in the habit of leasing out the larger part of its convicts. That has now been completely changed, and there is not a single convict employed outside of its walls; and yet there is not an idle man within the walls who is capable of work.

MONTANA.

No report received.

NEBRASKA.

Mr. J. A. GILLESPIE, Omaha.—Charity work and organization have made substantial progress in Nebraska during the past year. Although the bill creating a Board of Associated Charities failed to become a law, yet the discussion of it by the press has awakened a public sentiment in its favor, which will ultimately bring about the establishment of such a board.

The legislature appropriated \$75,000 for a new hospital for the insane, at Norfolk. It also made provision for the establishment of an Institute for Feeble-minded Children, and appropriated \$50,000 for a building: it is to be located at Beatrice, in the southern part of the State. It appropriated \$30,000 for the enlargement of the State Reform School: one of the buildings to be erected is exclusively for girls.

The aural method of instructing the deaf is still practised in the institution of which Mr. Gillespie has charge; and his hope is that many of his pupils may be graduated, at their discharge, as persons only hard of hearing.

The legislature appropriated \$10,000 for the enlargement of the Home for the Friendless at Lincoln, and \$5,000 with which to pay salaries and purchase fuel. The Woman's Christian Temperance Union, at a late meeting, decided to establish a Home for Fallen Women. Industrial Sewing-schools, mostly under church control, are popular, and have been organized in most of the larger towns. The Catholics have three well-appointed hospitals at different points in the State. The Episcopalians have also a Child's Hospital in Omaha, which costs \$10,000. The Union Pacific Railroad has a system of hospitals extending along its lines, which are supported in part by a tax on employés of the road.

Mrs. A. F. NEWMAN.—The new cell-house which has been constructed in the Nebraska penitentiary grounds has thoroughly ventilated and dry cells, 8 feet long by 8 feet 8 inches wide, 10 feet 7 inches high. They have windows 9 feet from the floor, opening to the outer air with a transom. Sleeping boards are provided, 2 feet by 7, 3 inches from the floor. There are 309 persons in the penitentiary, and but one woman. She has been in for three years. She is dressed in ordinary clothes, has flowers and a sewing machine in her room, on which she does a great deal of work. It has never been necessary to place her in solitary confinement. Gentle treatment has proved the true corrective.

NEVADA.

Rev. JAMES L. WOODS, Carson City.—The charitable institutions of Nevada are the Insane Asylum, at Reno, and the Orphans' Home, at Carson City. The deaf and the blind are educated at the expense of the State, in the institutions of California. The counties maintain county hospitals. There are no private societies, except the Roman Catholic Orphan Asylum, at Virginia City.

The Insane Asylum has been opened about two years. It is well located, substantially built, and well provided against the danger of fire. An average number of 150 patients is supported at a per capita cost of \$240 a year. It is supplied, by the generosity of the Board of Directors, with prominent medical works on insanity. Employment which tends to exertion and induces cheerfulness and health, with amusement, is an adjunct to medical treatment. The usual death-rate of eight per cent. has in this asylum been reduced to five and forty-seven hundredths per cent., due to thorough cleanliness and hygiene, and in part, no doubt, to the location and salubrious climate.

The average number in the Orphans' Home is about 45, maintained at a per capita cost of \$224, or, including permanent improvements, \$256. An excellent common school is provided, and industrial departments are partially maintained. It is well provided with a library and apparatus for the school, besides a home library of 760 volumes. The health of the inmates is good, and the general management worthy of commendation. County hospitals are provided for the indigent sick, including, with proverbial Western generosity, an attendant physician, in each of the counties. Poorhouses, and a general pauper system, strictly speaking, we have none. The boards of county commissioners provide for special cases of misfortune and indigence. Reformatory institutions, we have none.

The State Prison had, at the last report of the warden, 115 convicts. Of these, 100 could read and write; 5 could read only; and 10 could neither read nor write. In habits, 25 claim to be temperate; 90 admit that they are in the habit of drinking,—80 moderately, and 10 to excess. The prisoners are employed in quarrying stone and in the manufacture of boots and shoes, which has been a source of profit. No educational efforts are made of which we have any knowledge, but religious services are conducted by the ministers of Carson City. The average number incarcerated is about 120, who cost the State annually for their support \$40,000. The report of the attending physician shows an excellent sanitary condition, wholesome food, and comfortable clothing and bedding. Its general

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history for good order and discipline, comfort and humanity, consistent with its object, has met public approval. Concerning the county jails, we have no special information, and nothing to say in the way either of praise or censure.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

Rev. S. C. BEANE, Concord.—The State Prison at Concord contained, May 1, 1885, 127 prisoners. The contract system is continued. The earnings for the year ending May 1, 1884, were \$16,807.36; expenses, \$19,172.57. The prison is directly under the supervision of the governor and council, with no intermediate board of managers or inspectors. There has never been an attempt at grading the prisoners. The minimum sentence is one year. The ten counties of the State have each its jail, with a maximum sentence of one year. No regular employment is provided for jail prisoners. The county reports are so variously rendered that it is impossible to compute from them the criminal expenses of the several counties. The State Industrial School, at Manchester (formerly named State Reform School), for juvenile offenders of both sexes, had, April 1, 1884, 105 inmates. Expense to the State in 1883-84, \$18,551.25.

New Hampshire has no State Board of Charities, and, strictly speaking, no State charitable institutions. It educates its deaf and dumb and its blind at institutions outside the State, making a regular appropriation for the purpose. During the last year, the expenditures on these accounts amounted to \$7,574.02.

The State Insane Asylum, at Concord, is chiefly supported by the income of funds from gifts and legacies. These funds amount to \$216,147.68. The State, which has the management of the institution,—the governor and council appointing the trustees,—appropriates annually \$6,000 for the support of indigent insane.

A majority of the paupers in the State are now provided for at the several county poor-farms, very many of the towns, by arrangement with their county, dispensing with almshouses of their own. The cost of supporting paupers in the State, for the year ending May 1, 1884, was, on the county farms, \$125,694.92; off the farms, \$111,348.32; total, \$237,543.24. On the first day of February, 1883, there were on these farms 1,242 paupers, of whom 354 were insane. A commission appointed, under vote of the legislature in 1881, "to examine into the condition of the insane in the county almshouses," reported, in 1883, that at no one of them was there any special or scientific treatment of the insane, though rooms or buildings were specially provided for them; that on eight of the ten county

farms there was also a jail or house of correction; and that, on at least two of them, prisoners and insane were allowed to associate. The commission also reported that the average cost of supporting and caring for each insane person (about \$1.42 a week) was entirely inadequate. The commission, in view of these and similar facts, recommended to the legislature the establishment of a State board of commissioners in lunacy, who should have "general supervision of all insane county paupers at the county almshouses of this State," with power to send curable lunatics to an insane asylum; and that the State establish an insane asylum for insane county paupers deemed incurable. These recommendations were embodied in a bill introduced into the legislature of 1883, but postponed to the incoming legislature of 1885. It will probably, in its main features, be passed at the coming June session.

NEW JERSEY.

Dr. E. M. HUNT, Trenton.—During the past year, but few changes have occurred in the management of our State institutions. The asylum at Morris Plains, the largest in the State, has appointed Dr. Smith, who was the assistant physician, superintendent, in place of Dr. Buttolph, resigned. There has also been a separation affected between the medical and administrative departments, so that the medical staff hereafter only has to do with the care and direction of the patients. It is a new departure, and has not been imitated in the Trenton Asylum.

The county asylums vary much in their management, the largest being, as a rule, the best managed. The smaller ones, and some of the others, are directly or indirectly attached to the almshouses of the counties. The great difficulty with them is that the management is liable to political changes, and that appointments are often made by those not competent to judge of qualifications. Yet considerable improvement is apparent in the general management of asylums.

Our State Prison is very well managed, but we are in doubt what will be the result of the abolition of the contract system and the substitution of the piece-price or some other for it. We have from 800 to 900 prisoners. The Penitentiary of Hudson County and that of Essex County contain about 300 each. This makes up the prison population of the State.

I regret to say that the management of the Jamesburg Reform School for the past year has not been satisfactory. Mr. Eastman went to Rhode Island, and several of the trustees resigned.

The City Home for Boys, at Verona, in Essex County, under the

charge of Mr. Harrison, deserves especial notice, because it is well conducted as an educational and industrial school, and is doing much to save the boys, by teaching them good habits and by training them for special industries.

A Children's Home, established in Morris County, has, without State or county aid, shown such utility that the Morris County Almshouse now commits to its care all the children of the dependent classes.

The jails of the State have improved somewhat. But the associations of the corridors are still demoralizing, and the system of care is wrong. There is improvement in almshouse management, but room for far more.

I refer you to the last reports of the State Board of Health and of the Bureau of Labor and Industries for valuable facts as to all these matters. It is encouraging that two of the State departments are looking into the subject, and that there is some growth of public opinion. There is a recognition of the fact that these studies have a bearing on the interests of labor and on the civic welfare of the State.

NEW YORK.

Dr. CHARLES S. HOYT.—There have been no new State institutions established in New York during the year. The appropriations for current expenses of the existing institutions have been made on the basis of former years, and, on the whole, are adequate for the purpose. The appropriations for the State board have been in accordance with its desires, and sufficient to meet the ends for which it was created.

The custodial asylum for feeble-minded girls and young women, at Newark, heretofore under the control of the trustees of the State Idiot Asylum, has been placed under a separate board of ladies and gentlemen, appointed by the governor and senate. Its enlargement in the near future is quite probable. It has accommodations for about 150 inmates, while the requirements of the State are for a much larger number.

There is no apparent increase in the number of dependants in the State, other than the insane, of whom there are about 12,000 in institutions. The various State, county, and private asylums are full; and the managers are severely taxed to meet the pressing demands upon them for this class. The only increase in the accommodations for the insane made by the last legislature is for about 400 patients at the Binghamton State Asylum; but the buildings cannot be erected and put in condition for use before the close of the

present year. To meet the pressing demands of the institution, the managers, under the advice of the State board and of the State Commissioner in Lunacy, have provided tents for about 250 patients on the asylum grounds, which will be used until the additional buildings are completed. Part of these tents are erected and occupied.

The legislature of 1884, in accordance with the popular vote upon the subject, abolished the contract system of labor in prisons, penitentiaries, and reformatories. The last legislature failed to supply any other system. As the contracts expire, the prisoners are worked on State account. A large outlay will be required to carry on the work in the prisons during the year. An appropriation has been made for the completion of the Reformatory for Women; and the erection of the buildings is now in progress, and they will probably be early completed.

I beg to refer the Conference to the annual reports of the State board for statistical information regarding the charities of New York, which it is deemed unnecessary to repeat on this occasion.

NORTH CAROLINA.

Mr. WILLIAM. J. HICKS, Raleigh.—During the past year there have been no important changes in the laws, nor in the officers of institutions.

The Penitentiary, at Raleigh, is constructed according to plans furnished by Major Levi T. Scofield, architect, of Cleveland, Ohio, who has quite an extensive reputation for his fine taste in designing prisons and other public buildings. This prison is admirably lighted and ventilated, thoroughly heated by steam in every department, and has excellent accommodations for cooking, washing, bathing, etc., with comfortable and convenient chapel, hospitals, and school-rooms. The cells are 5 x 8 feet, with pitch of from 7 1-2 to 8 feet.

The North Carolina Insane Asylum, at Raleigh, was built some years ago, and is of the old style of such institutions; but it has been thoroughly repaired and refitted during the past two years, and is now in excellent condition. The Western Insane Asylum, at Morganton, is a very large and handsome structure, built according to plans furnished by the lamented Samuel Sloan, of Philadelphia, who had a world-wide reputation for his great ability and fine skill in the arrangement and construction of buildings for the insane. Every comfort is found in this asylum for the care and treatment of the unfortunate insane. The Eastern Insane Asylum for the colored, at Goldsboro', is a new building of handsome design, admirably arranged for the care of patients. The building for the deaf, dumb,

and blind, at Raleigh, is an old one, but, although not just what is wanted, has been made, by frequent changes and additions, to answer its purpose reasonably well.

The Orphan Asylum at Oxford is growing rapidly in popular favor and usefulness.

The following statement exhibits the progress made in popular appreciation of the importance of educational, charitable, and penal work within the last ten years. The amount expended by the State in 1874 and in 1884, for the items named, is given in parallel columns:—

Item.	1874.	1884.
Penitentiary,	\$88,000.00	\$176,782.64
Penitentiary Sunday-school,		50.00
Convict Account,	7,715.27	
North Carolina Insane Asylum (support),	50,000.00	58,000.00
North Carolina Insane Asylum (expense account),	947.17	
Western Insane Asylum,		36,652.80
Eastern Insane Asylum (colored),		25,000.00
Idiot and Lunatics,	39,715.99	
Deaf, Dumb, and Blind Institute,	46,125.00	56,000.00
Oxford Orphan Asylum,		5,000.00
University of North Carolina,		12,500.00
Normal Schools,		8,000.00
Common School Fund,		765,032.16
Total,	\$473,503.43	\$1,123,017.60

I have not been able to ascertain the number of inmates of institutions in 1874; but there were, in 1884, in the Penitentiary (average), 1,020; Western Insane Asylum, 180; Eastern Asylum, 144; Deaf, Dumb, and Blind, 215.

J. H. MILLS.—In regard to the Western Lunatic Asylum, the last legislature appropriated \$80,000 to finish that palace. For myself, I am sorry that we ever started it. It has cost an immense sum of money. The accommodations for each inmate have cost at least a thousand dollars. We have to carry the water three miles. It seems to me that it would have been better to put the institution where the water is. \$5,000 have been added to the appropriation for the Oxford Orphan Asylum. Private individuals are also building another. As to penitentiaries, I do not believe in them as they are conducted in some parts of the South and elsewhere. To take a man and sentence him to a penitentiary, and then ship him off to be broiled in the sun in some deep railroad cut, or to catch consumption in a cold and damp tunnel, and at night lock him up in a hot and close stockade, where he cannot get a decent breath, does not make him better. The whipping-post is tender mercy compared with it. It is a system that grinds out the soul. I do not think that you

will ever make a human being better by taking him away from good men and women and innocent children, and every good influence, till his spirit is broken and his heart corrupted; when he comes out, he may find his children scattered, and that his wife has secured a divorce and married another man. Then every decent door is shut in his face; and he commits another crime, and returns to the penitentiary as to a house of refuge.

OHIO.

Mr. WILLIAM HOWARD NEFF.—The public institutions of Ohio are in good condition. A change in public sentiment is taking place, and the opinion is gaining ground that the institutions should be freed from political associations and conditions. The conservative and judicious course pursued by Gov. Hoadly, in refusing to make changes for political reasons only, has produced an excellent effect, and justifies the Board of State Charities in the hope that another conservative gubernatorial term of two years, continuing the policy of Govs. Foster and Hoadly, will result in placing the public institutions of Ohio beyond the reach of party politics,—a consummation devoutly to be wished for. In the insane asylums, the new treatment, dispensing with mechanical and medicinal restraints, employing the patients, as far as possible, in congenial industrial pursuits, of course at their own option; the increase of open wards; the introduction of female physicians; improvement in buildings and construction, obtaining great additional facilities at a great reduction of expense,—characterize the work of the year.

The Reform School for Boys has introduced several new trades, and is doing a great work in fitting the inmates for usefulness, when their term of probation expires. The infirmaries, or poorhouses, are improving greatly; and the new system of keeping accounts uniformly, and the general classifications of expenses under certain heads, will facilitate comparisons, and greatly improve the condition of the infirmaries, while it will be very satisfactory to the tax-payers.

The Board of State Charities has earnestly recommended the abolition of out-door relief in all the cities of the State; and this recommendation has been heartily seconded by the Board of Associated Charities, but has not yet been introduced into the legislature. The great work of the year in Ohio has been penitentiary reform. The advanced position of a year ago, placing Ohio in the van of progress, has been fully maintained; and a very important additional step has been taken in the establishment of an intermediate prison for young criminals and first offenders. A law, which we regard as very important, bears hardly upon habitual criminals. It renders

them liable to life imprisonment after the second conviction, unless released by the Board of Penitentiary Managers, after the expiration of the maximum term of imprisonment for their offence. We think that habitual criminals will hereafter avoid the State of Ohio. The discretion so wisely given to the Board of Penitentiary Managers, in reference to the manner of terminating the contract system, has resulted in the adoption of the piece-price plan, and will bear less heavily on the tax-payers of the State than if this discretion had not been given. While, of course, the change is an experiment, it will be tried under the most favorable circumstances. The Board of Managers is now forming rules for the parole of well-behaved prisoners, and no backward step has been taken in the great work of penitentiary reform.

The Children's Homes in counties and districts are doing well. All needed legislation has been enacted, and the good work of removing all the children from the infirmaries is fast progressing.

The following summary, prepared by our secretary, Rev. Dr. A. G. Byers, will exhibit at a glance the extent and cost of the Ohio institutions : —

GENERAL SUMMARY.

Name of Institution.	Location.	Total number for the year.	Daily average.	Total current expenses for year, including salaries.	Per capita cost.
<i>State Benevolent Institutions.</i>					
Asylum for Insane,	Athens, .	858	583	\$103,028.22	\$165.64
"	Cleveland, .	845	617	112,118.85	176.50
"	Columbus, .	1,173	820	177,654.30	198.73
"	Dayton, .	789	597	111,671.77	179.68
"	Carthage, .	882	674	103,289.11	154.37
"	Toledo, .	116	112	23,079.33	200.69
Institution for Deaf and Dumb, .	Columbus, .	476	404	78,119.55	193.36
" " Blind,	"	240	184	44,511.33	171.19
Institution for Feeble-minded Youths, .	"	658	548	105,232.82	164.87
Soldiers' and Sailors' Orphans' Home,	Xenia, .	642	771	105,511.38	159.62
<i>Penal and Reformatory.</i>					
Ohio Penitentiary,	Columbus, .	2,016	1,405	226,053.89	160.89
Reform School for Boys,	Lancaster, .	624	430	66,034.95	144.56
Girls' Industrial Home,	Delaware, .	349	273	47,360.85	165.71
Workhouse,	Cincinnati, .	3,034	464	63,702.63	136.87
"	Cleveland, .	2,219	315	32,280.61	102.47
House of Refuge,	Cincinnati, .	577	304	34,640.71	113.95
"	Cleveland, .	230	157	11,284.34	71.87
House of Correction,	Toledo, .	244	189	20,800.00	110.00
<i>County Institutions.</i>					
Children's Homes,	"	2,234	1,376	178,009.38	104.15
County Infirmaries,	"	12,663	8,008	919,825.31	" . . .
County Jails,	"	8,270	" . . .	116,583.84	" . . .
Total,	"	39,139	18,240	\$2,676,953.07	" . . .
Out-door relief disbursed by infirmaries,	"	" . . .	" . . .	291,520.20	" . . .
Grand total,	"	" . . .	" . . .	\$2,968,473.27	" . . .

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OREGON.

Rev. A. L. LINDSLEY, D.D.—On the Pacific Coast, we are making progress in the discussion of such subjects as prison discipline, convict labor, the intellectual and moral qualifications of jurors and judges, the regulation of sentences which shall relieve them of the odious features of caprice, bias, and relative injustice. We are discussing also the subject of punishment as a restraint on criminals and the suppression of crime. The classification of prisoners is also receiving attention. There exists the outrage of putting witnesses in jail that they may be ready when wanted. The same is true of accused persons committed for trial who may be innocent. If they have money or friends, they can go out on bail; but, if they are poor or strangers, they must be retained.

On the subject of juvenile delinquency, we are not idle. We have an excellent law for a reform school, and a gentleman of Portland, Hon. William S. Ladd, tendered a liberal endowment of lands and buildings; but the whole was arrested by growing doubts of the expediency of the system known as the reform school. In the mean time, we are caring for vagrant and helpless children in asylums and free kindergartens. Homes for the friendless open hospitable doors for the relief of adults as well as helpless little ones. We are organizing a Children's Aid Society, over which we hope to place Gov. Moody as president. Under a State law, we take the young vagrants and criminals, and find homes for them in the country, where they will be taught to be moral and industrious, and take a respectable place in society.

Under State control, we have asylums for the insane, for deaf-mutes, and for the blind. We have also an industrial school for Indian youth of both sexes, and different religious societies are carrying on evening schools and Sunday-schools for the Chinese.

PENNSYLVANIA.

Mr. W. J. SAWYER.—No change in the relations of the State Board of Charities to the institutions in the State has taken place since the meeting of the National Conference of Charities and Correction last October.

Mr. A. L. E. Crouter has been elected to succeed Mr. Foster as superintendent of the Pennsylvania Institution of the Deaf and Dumb, Philadelphia. Dr. John B. Chapin has taken the place of Dr. Thomas S. Kirkbride, deceased, as physician in chief of the Pennsylvania Hospital for the Insane; Dr. H. A. Hutchinson, that of

Dr. Joseph A. Reed, deceased, as superintendent and physician at the Western Pennsylvania Hospital for the Insane, at Dixmont. The date of Dr. Reed's death was Nov. 16, 1884, in the sixty-first year of his age, after a most faithful and able service in this hospital from 1857. Mr. MacIntyre has resumed his duties as superintendent of the Western Pennsylvania Institution for the Deaf and Dumb, having been compelled by severe illness to lay them aside for several months.

The Huntingdon County State Industrial Reformatory is not yet in condition to receive inmates, although the work is being rapidly pushed forward; and it is hoped that the present legislature will appropriate an amount sufficient to complete the buildings. A gratifying improvement is being made in many of the county jails; and, in several of them, new buildings are being erected on plans approved by the Board of Charities. That at Doylestown is admirable in all its appointments, and may well be called a model jail. It has been open for the reception of convicts for several months. The new jail at Greensburg has also been open since the beginning of the year, and is a great improvement on the accommodations previously provided for prisoners. In Elk County, new plans have been submitted, approved, and the work begun on a new jail. The Allegheny County jail, Pittsburg, is rapidly approaching completion. Plans for a new county jail in Philadelphia, to replace the old one at Moyamensing, have been approved by the Board of Charities: this will cost over \$1,000,000, and afford much required relief to the overcrowded inmates in the old jail.

The present legislature has made an appropriation to build a new Institution for the Deaf and Dumb at Scranton, where it is proposed to devote special attention to the oral method of instruction. Appropriations, it is hoped, will be made at this session of the legislature to enlarge the insane asylums at Norristown and at Harrisburg. Increased accommodations, both for the comfort and safety of the insane, are much needed; and it is confidently expected that the necessary funds to secure them will be furnished. Several new medical and surgical hospitals are building, and many old ones are enlarging their capacity.

The Children's Aid Society, established to assist in procuring homes for children between two and sixteen years of age, formerly occupants of the almshouses, has been pre-eminently successful, and finds no difficulty in securing good homes in private families for the children heretofore provided for in these institutions.

Inquiries have frequently been made by members of the legislature now in session, having in view the adoption of uniform methods of accounting in all State institutions. It is not improbable that some such method as that now existing in Illinois may be adopted by Pennsylvania. The necessity of having uniform statistical reports from all institutions of like character is strongly felt, and the wish expressed that the State boards of the several States would adopt tables, so that comparisons in the methods and expense of management might readily be made.

A bill has passed the State senate, providing for the appointment of prison inspectors and wardens in county jails in place of the present system prevailing in most of these institutions, where the sheriff has entire charge of the jail and prisoners. In Pennsylvania, his term of service is but three years, and he is not eligible for re-election; and thus an entire change must take place on the election of a new incumbent of the office. Should this become a law, still greater improvement may be looked for in the character of our county jails.

The Board of Public Charities acts as immigration agent under appointment of the Secretary of the Treasury at Washington. This adds largely to the duties of the board, as the great number of immigrants constantly arriving require special vigilance in those intrusted with the examination into their condition and the relief to be afforded, when necessity requires it.

Very great good has resulted to the patients now treated in the Philadelphia Hospital attached to Blockley Almshouse by the change effected by the managers in securing the services of two trained English nurses, who take entire charge of that department in this institution. It would indeed be a backward step, should the managers allow themselves to be deprived of the skill apparent everywhere in this hospital since their coming. The effort to secure the purchase by the State of the property now used by the House of Refuge in Philadelphia, to enable the managers to move that institution into the country, has not yet met with success. This is one of the oldest and best managed institutions in the country; but its situation, in the heart of a large city, prevents that freedom being allowed which it is so desirable to give to the class of dependants here provided for. A high wall, instead of broad acres, surrounds the building; but it is confidently believed that before long this vestige of a past age will have disappeared.

The accompanying tables show the number of persons receiving aid, and the amount given by the State, during the past year:—

EXTRACTS FROM THE ANNUAL REPORT OF THE PENNSYLVANIA BOARD
OF PUBLIC CHARITIES, 1884.*Summary of Convicts, Prisoners, the Unfortunate and Indigent Classes.*

Where maintained.	Number on Sept. 30, 1884.	Total Expenses (Annual).
<i>Convicts and Prisoners.</i>		
In Eastern Penitentiary,	1,008	\$172,071.14
In Western Penitentiary,	607	330,973.58
In County Prisons (including House of Correct'n and Work'g use),	5,289	884,387.38
Total,	6,994	\$1,397,432.10
<i>Insane and Idiotic.</i>		
Harrisburg Hospital,	425	\$93,247.00
Danville Hospital,	412	75,115.56
Dixmont Hospital,	516	122,849.26
Norristown Hospital,	1,110	259,816.34
Warren Hospital,	483	73,611.62
Friends' Asylum,	95	60,387.76
Pennsylvania Hospital,	368	193,081.56
Philadelphia Hospital,	696	60,194.72
Total,	4,105	\$938,303.82
<i>Feeble-minded.</i>		
Training School,	443	\$124,908.40
Total,	443	\$124,908.40
<i>Deaf and Dumb.</i>		
Institution at Philadelphia,	331	\$273,030.92
Institution at Pittsburg,	120	20,749.52
Total,	451	\$293,780.44
<i>Blind.</i>		
Institution at Philadelphia,	199	\$66,857.96
Total,	199	\$66,857.96
<i>Paupers, etc.</i>		
In almshouses,	*8,599	\$1,267,022.50
Receiving out-door relief,	†18,980	241,758.28
Receiving township relief,	‡2,249	227,628.94
Total,	29,828	\$1,736,409.72

Mr. GARRETT submitted the following statement of the work of the Lunacy Committee. There has been no new legislation in reference to the insane. A bill was introduced to separate the Committee on Lunacy from the Board of Public Charities, which failed to become a law. At this writing, a bill has passed one House, the effect of which, if passed, will be to make the Committee on Lunacy less independent of the board in its powers.

The lunacy law has, for the most part, worked smoothly; and the superintendents apparently find no such difficulty in making the reports required by the act as some of them apprehended.

* Of this number (8,599), 1,626 were insane and idiotic, 184 blind, and 59 were deaf and dumb.

† This number (18,980) represents the entire number relieved during year.

‡ Year ending March 31, 1884.

A number of cases have been disclosed, whose detention was of doubtful propriety, and in some instances so recognized by the superintendent of the hospital, when attention was called to them; and the committee and superintendents have co-operated harmoniously in their consideration. Several of these patients have been released, absolutely or on parole. In no such case has the committee discovered evidence of wrong intention on the part of those engaged in the management of the institution, but in a few there seemed to be a wrong motive on the part of relatives who had been concerned in the patient's commitment. All patients have unrestricted access to the Committee on Lunacy. An unexpected number of persons have been found confined in their own homes in a barbarous manner, sometimes naked and insufficiently warmed, sometimes in chains, often in the midst of filth, and shamefully neglected. Through the instrumentality of the committee, such patients have been removed to hospitals, whenever found. One was burned to death, by the house taking fire, before he could be removed.

The Blockley Insane Hospital, connected with the Philadelphia Almshouse, with about 700 inmates, was partially destroyed by fire during the past winter, and over twenty of the patients perished in the flames. These were fastened in their rooms, most of them, and the doors locked on the outside; and keys could not be produced in time to save them. One of the victims wore a strait-jacket, when found. The buildings were too high, and too much surrounded by the almshouse buildings, and, in the opinion of the Committee on Lunacy, should never be rebuilt in so contracted a place. The committee has addressed a memorial to the city authorities on the subject; but, in spite of its earnest protest, there is a disposition to rebuild the burned structure on the old-fashioned plan. It is not, however, yet decided.

The provision for the insane of this State is very inadequate, the Norristown Asylum having now over 1,300 inmates, though constructed for 804. The Harrisburg State Hospital is antiquated, and not safe as regards fire; yet the State, year after year, refuses to make the necessary appropriations for building. This fact greatly restricts the movement for transferring patients from very unsuitable quarters and inadequate treatment in almshouses. This has nevertheless been accomplished in the cases of a number of counties during the year.

RHODE ISLAND.

Mr. W. W. CHAPIN, Providence.—Prof. George I. Chace, for nearly ten years the esteemed and able chairman of the Board of State Charities and Corrections, upon whose sound judgment in matters relating to the conduct of the institutions the board largely relied, even after his retirement in 1883, died, in Providence, April 29, 1885, at the age of seventy-seven years. To quote from a notice of his life in the *Providence Journal* of May 1: "To this entire work in all its branches, Mr. Chace gave himself with his utmost energy and zeal. It occupied all his time and well-nigh all his thoughts, until its accomplishment was secured, and these important institutions of the State were placed upon their present prosperous footing. . . . His scientific knowledge, his careful judgment, and his weight of character gave them [his associates] the assurance that he was a safe counselor; while his conciliatory spirit and unfailing courtesy enabled him to harmonize varying opinions, and to secure that unity of action which has always characterized the proceedings of the board. Many difficult negotiations were thus intrusted to him, in the full confidence that the views of the board and the interests of the State would in this way be best promoted; and the result always showed that this confidence had not been misplaced."

The most important law relating to our institutions enacted at the last session of the legislature is one authorizing the sending of presumably curable cases of insanity to a curative hospital. Whether this law will or will not be annulled by another law upon the same subject, which will go into effect July 1, has yet to be determined. The latter law was passed two years ago (but was subsequently postponed), with a view of sending all the pauper insane, whether curable or chronic, to the State Asylum, which is not organized as a curative hospital,—a mistaken policy, as the board believes.

Authority was also given the board to send such inmates of the several institutions as they are authorized to discharge, and who may need treatment, surgical or medical, not obtainable at the institutions, to the Rhode Island Hospital, in Providence, an admirably equipped and administered private charity.

At the session of the legislature in 1884, and again in 1885, an act was introduced, but not passed, by which it was provided that no inmate of any prison or public charitable or reformatory institution should be denied the free exercise of his religious belief and liberty of worshipping God according to the dictates of his conscience; in fact, an act identical with the law of Massachusetts on

this subject. The object sought was to enable the clergy of the Roman Catholic Church to administer their rites and sacraments to such of the inmates of the State institutions as might desire their services. Notwithstanding the failure of legislation in this direction, the board has authorized the administration of the rites and sacraments of the Roman Church to the inmates of the several institutions under their charge, except the Reform Schools. Thus far, the board has had no reason to regret its action.*

The gross expenditures of the board, for current expenses in the care and maintenance of institutions, removals of paupers, etc., were \$153,049.83; and for construction, \$35,132.48; total, \$188,182.31. The average number of inmates was 1,241; and the net cost of maintenance, deducting from the gross expenditures the income from labor and sales, was at the rate of \$103.04 per annum for each inmate.

The sums appropriated for the use of the board for 1885 are as follows: for maintenance, some small items of construction, and for extraordinary repairs, \$140,000; for completion of buildings for the insane, \$10,000; for improvement of public highways at or near the institutions, \$1,000. The receipts of the board are paid into the State treasury, and added to the appropriation for maintenance: these will amount in the current year to about \$40,000.

The State Home and School for Children, an institution established by law in 1884, will soon be in operation. It has for its object "to provide for neglected and dependent children, not recognized as vicious or criminal, such influences as will lead toward an honest, intelligent, and self-supporting manhood and womanhood,—the State, so far as possible, holding to them the parental relation." The institution will be in charge of the State Board of Education, and will not form one of the group of penal and charitable institutions intrusted to the care of the Board of State Charities and Corrections.

SOUTH CAROLINA.

Dr. P. E. GRIFFIN.—The three charitable institutions supported by the State are the Institute for the Deaf and Dumb and the

*The law of Illinois, on the subject of religious instruction in the State institutions, enacted in 1874, is as follows: "Clergymen of all denominations shall be admitted freely and without let or hindrance or restraint to visit at pleasure any inmate confined in the penitentiary at Joliet, or in any other prison, reformatory, or charitable institution belonging to the State of Illinois, subject to such rules and regulations as may be established by the officers in charge of said institutions: provided that any clergyman so applying shall produce to the officers in charge of such institution visited as aforesaid satisfactory evidence, from the church authorities to which he belongs, that he is a clergyman in good standing." No objection has ever been made to this law, and no trouble of any sort arisen from its passage.

Blind, N. F. Walker, superintendent; the Penitentiary, T. J. Lipscomb, superintendent; and the Lunatic Asylum, P. E. Griffin, M.D., superintendent. The number of pupils enrolled in the first-named institution is 73. The expenses for their support, \$11,018.02; for building and repairs, \$4,289.67; total, \$15,307.69. A department for colored pupils was opened Oct. 1, 1883.

The Penitentiary is steadily improving, and was pronounced by Gen. Brinkerhoff, who visited it recently, one of the best managed prisons he had inspected. There are now only 230 of the convicts leased out. An act of the last General Assembly, "requiring all convicts hired from the Penitentiary to be under a sworn officer and guards appointed by and responsible to the superintendent of the Penitentiary, and regulating the hiring of such convicts," while it has temporarily crippled the finances of the institution, is a step in the right direction. When the buildings now in course of construction are completed, there is reason to believe that all the convicts can and will be humanely employed within the prison walls.

The State, which has always generously provided for its insane, made last year appropriations sufficient to complete the new asylum. In its construction, the regents have carefully studied the modern methods, and in the matter of treatment are rapidly overtaking the most advanced advocates of non-restraint. There is now provision for all insane, epileptic, and idiotic persons who cannot be cared for in the family.

TENNESSEE.

Mrs. L. MERRIWETHER, Memphis.—The city of Memphis has the following charitable institutions. The City Hospital is supported by taxation. The Roman Catholic Church maintains the House of the Good Shepherd and St. Peter's Orphan Asylum. In the former, there are, besides the Mother Superior, 13 sisters, 34 penitents, 17 orphan girls, and 8 Magdalens. A farm of about fifty acres is attached. The Orphan Asylum has a farm of two hundred acres, and an average number of about 40 inmates. The Protestant Episcopal Church also maintains two institutions: a Church Home, with about 35 inmates, under the care of the Sisters of St. Mary, supported by the diocese; and the Canfield Asylum for Colored Children. Mrs. Canfield, the widow of a federal officer, received assistance from the government in the erection of the building; but the Home is supported in part by her endowment fund, and in part by the subscriptions of Southern citizens. The managers and teachers are colored. A school is carried on, and the average number of inmates is 75. The Leath

Orphan Asylum, supported by the Odd Fellows, with about 30 children, is named after its founder, who gave the ground (25 acres), and contributed liberally toward the erection of the building. The Mission Home, a refuge for fallen women and orphan children, is under the care of the Christian Association,—an organization of Christian women, of all denominations, effected, in 1875, by Mrs. I. C. Johnson, who, three years ago, answered the Master's call to come up higher.

“When such a lovely story

As that of her sweet life on earth appears,
It crowns all womanhood with gentle glory;
And, when it fades, there is no room for tears.
The good her life hath wrought shall perish never;
And, though the worker may be laid away
To her last rest, the work remains forever,
Nor crumbles with the clay.”

This association now numbers about 200 women, who labor in every avenue of Christian charity. They are divided into bands, with a chairman for each ward, known as ward visitors, who investigate applications for relief, which is granted from the treasury of the association. They have a jail committee, hospital committee, poor-house committee, and sustain an intelligence office. The number of inmates of the Home is 54, of whom 40 are children. Mr. I. C. Johnson, the husband of the lady who founded the Christian Association, four years ago, established, and pays all the cost of maintaining, the Hope Night School. He owns the building, which he furnishes rent free. He purchased the desks and all the school furniture. He pays for coal, gas, water, etc., and employs five teachers, whose salaries are defrayed by him. The boys receive their tuition free; and, if too poor to buy books, he supplies them. Last year, the number of pupils on the roll was 162. All of them worked by day, and devoted two hours each night to study, some of them coming to school without their supper. The Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals and Children is a branch of the National Society.

At Nashville, we have the Cole Industrial School, founded by Col. E. W. Cole, with sixty-five acres of ground, a mile from the city, and buildings accommodating 75; but a large addition is in process of construction. The Industrial School for Girls was established and is maintained by an association of women. This school is self-supporting. The Woman's Home is a refuge for fallen women, with a hospital for women, under a female physician, where mothers

and children are kept until satisfactory employment for the mother can be procured. Children are kept until six years of age, and then, if not taken by their mothers, are transferred to an orphan asylum. The Woman's Relief Society is an association of women of all denominations, for the care of the poor and the sick. About six miles from the city is the State Insane Asylum, with about six hundred acres of land, two hundred of which are finely improved. The number of patients is 412, under the superintendence of Dr. I. C. Callender, who has recommended the employment of a woman physician for the female patients, which will probably be done within the coming year. The State School for the Blind is at Nashville.

The Chattanooga Orphans' Home for White Children, managed by an association, provides for 80 inmates, and maintains a school for children under seven years of age. The Steele Orphans' Home, named for its founder, is for colored children. The Associated Charities, an incorporated society of gentlemen, undertakes to provide in a systematic way for the destitute poor of the city.

At Knoxville, the Margaret McClung Industrial Home, an institution of eight years' standing, has a primary school, and gives instruction in all branches of home industry. The Agricultural College is an endowed State institution, with scholarships in each congressional district. The Episcopal Orphanage, for small children, is supported by the Episcopal church in Knoxville. By the first of September, the East Tennessee Insane Asylum will be opened, which will accommodate 300 patients, both white and colored.

The appropriations made by the last legislature were: for the East Tennessee Insane Asylum, \$85,000, in addition to \$95,000 already expended, making the total cost \$180,000; for the West Tennessee Insane Asylum, soon to be built, \$95,000; for the Blind School, \$34,000; for St. Mary's Orphan Asylum (Catholic), for 85 children, \$30 each; for the Protestant Asylum, for 32 children, \$30 each; for the Woman's Mission Home, \$30 per inmate; for the Industrial School for Girls, for 10 scholars, \$30 each.

A law has been enacted, taking all children from poorhouses. If the mother goes to the poorhouse, the State is required to provide for the child in an orphanage.

TEXAS.

Dr. A. N. DENTON.—I know very little of the charitable institutions of Texas except the one that I am connected with, an insane hospital, with 570 inmates. Of that number, I suppose 550 are

85 11750
5510

charity patients. The institution was never in better condition. We have another institution in Northern Texas, about completed, which will accommodate about 350. Many of the insane outside of the institutions are languishing in the jails of the State; and I regret to say that some of our jails are in a bad condition, badly constructed, and with very faulty sanitary arrangements. I might almost say that they are a disgrace to the State and to the civilization of the age. There are some exceptions, however. We have some well-constructed prisons. I know little about the management of the penitentiaries, but I know that the superintendents and officers are humane and excellent gentlemen. But the death-rate has been very great in them. Until a year ago, our penitentiaries were conducted on the lease system; but the legislature has abolished that system, and they are conducted by the State. However, more than two-thirds of all the prisoners are at work outside of the walls of the penitentiaries. There is a good deal of room for reformation and improvement.

UTAH.

No report received.

VERMONT.

Mr. W. G. FAIRBANK, Vergennes.—Our State and private charities and penal institutions are well equipped and, we believe, wisely managed. The number of inmates, at date of last report, was 664, of whom there were in the State Prison, at Windsor, 89; in the Workhouse, at Rutland, 61; in the Reform School, at Vergennes, 84; and in the Asylum for the Insane, at Brattleboro (which is a private institution, owned by a corporation), 430. The total expenditures for two years were a little over \$260,000.

The earnings of convicts in the State Prison for two years were \$19,903: the prison cost, above its income, \$17,461.90. The industry followed is shoemaking, under a contract. The earnings of the Workhouse from marble work, also under contract, were \$8,075.94, and the net cost to the State only \$4,586.55.

The Reform School contains a department for boys and one for girls. The earnings of the boys were \$6,900.19; the receipts from towns, \$4,466.39; and from parents and others, \$562.29. The net cost to the State, during the last of the two years ending July 31, 1884, was \$9,527.73, of which \$7,392.59 was paid by the State treasury, and \$2,225.14 by towns. From these figures, it would appear that the net cost to the State treasury of the penal and reformatory institutions of the State is less than \$15,000 annually.

In the Reform School, the boys are engaged in cane-seating chairs. The number of hours in school each day is four. The large and small boys are separated from each other, except in school and at their work. The play-ground has no fence about it; and there are no bars or grates on the buildings, save in two refractory rooms. From 75 to 90 per cent. of the boys and girls at this school make respectable citizens, after leaving it.

The annual income and expenditures of the Insane Asylum are about \$85,000, which includes improvements and additions. For the insane poor, a charge of \$3.75 per week is made; for private patients, from \$4 to \$7 per week. The certificate of two physicians, with the reasons for their opinion, under oath, are required in every case for admission; and the physicians certifying must be residents of the State, not members of the same firm, nor connected with any asylum in the State.

As private charities, we have two Homes for Destitute Children, one in Burlington and the other in St. Albans. These have done, and are doing, a most humane and excellent work, by which the people of the State are laid under a debt of gratitude to them, especially to the Home in Burlington, which has been longest in the field.

VIRGINIA.

The report from Virginia was signed by I. M. Curry, William E. Hatcher, and John B. Crenshaw.—The Virginia Penitentiary, which was for many years a charge upon the State, in its last printed report (1883), states its net earnings to be \$20,155.97; number of prisoners, 959. There is a large chapel provided for the use of the prisoners; and divine service is conducted by ministers from the different congregations in the city of Richmond, where the prison is situated. A Sabbath-school is carried on Sunday afternoon.

The management of the Penitentiary is under the charge of a board of directors, superintendent, general agent, and surgeon. A portion of the convicts are hired out on railroads; but the most of them, except what are necessary to make the cloth, etc., for the prisoners, are hired to a shoe manufacturing company, and to manufacture tobacco.

The Eastern Lunatic Asylum is at Williamsburg, and is the oldest in the State. It is supported by appropriations from the State treasury, aided by the amount received from patients able to pay, and the proceeds of their large farm and garden.

The number of lunatics in and out of asylums, of both colors, in

Virginia, is probably about 1,500, or about 1 to every 1,000 of population. This does not include the insane of the State who are treated in private asylums.

The annual per capita cost is reported at \$216. The officers of the asylum are eleven directors, chosen from different portions of the State, superintendent, who is chief physician, with two assistants, steward, assistant steward, clerk, storekeeper, supervisor, and matron.

The Western Lunatic Asylum is at Staunton, and is under the management of a Board of Directors and officers, like the Eastern.

The president reports that it is his aim to furnish as many, and as great a variety of amusements, as possible, compatible, of course, with the duties of attendants and other employés. The Tuesday evening "dance" is, and for a long time has been, a permanent "fixture" here, at which very many of the inmates are in attendance, of whom a large majority engage in the exercise with spirit and animation, and where all deport themselves with becoming propriety. Numbers of those who, while in the wards, have to be constantly watched, for fear they may do themselves or others physical harm, or literally tear the clothes from their bodies, will appear in the amusement hall with dignity, and conduct themselves with such perfect propriety as to create some doubt in the minds of strangers as to which is the patient and which the person in charge. Besides the furnishing of amusements to the insane, we find that suitable employment, for all classes who can be induced to participate, is recognized as an important element in the treatment of our patients and a matter of much concern with us.

The Central Lunatic Asylum, for colored insane, has been removed, within the year, to a pleasant location near Petersburg. It has new and commodious buildings, and has the same general management as the other asylums.

The Institution for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb and the Blind is situated at Staunton. It is largely supported by appropriations from the State treasury, but receives aid from tuition fees, and a small amount from the work-shops of the institution. The reports show that they are in good condition.

The Hampton Normal and Agricultural Institute is situated at Hampton, Va. On June 30, 1885, it had enrolled in all 675: young men, 400; 275 girls. Of these, 468 have attended the day school; and the balance, 207, the night school. Of 125 Indian students, 20 are included in the regular normal classes, and 12 in the night class.

The rest are preparatory, and are not counted above. Average attendance for the year, 590. All but 30 are boarders from abroad, representing sixteen States and Territories. From Virginia, 311 colored students.

The Industrial Systems.—The reports herewith submitted give an account of the year's work, which has been, on the whole, a satisfactory one.

Colored students have been employed as follows, an average of 170 of them working all day and studying at night :—

Farming,	76
Machine-shop,	12
Carpentering,	16
Shoe-shop,	12
Blacksmithing,	6
Wheelwrighting,	6
Sewing and Tailoring,	62
Cooking Class,	40
Huntington Industrial Works,	45
Knitting Department,	24
Harness-shop,	6
Tin-shop,	6
Printing-office,	11
Tailoring-shop,	8
Housework,	190
Laundry work,	87

Night students not infrequently flinch from the ordeal of ten hours' work and two hours' night study ; but the plan, with the average of 100 boys and 60 girls, is a success.

This institution received State aid in 1885 to the amount of \$10,463.36 ; is in a prosperous condition, and doing a good work both among the colored population of this State and Indian youths sent in from the West.

The Agricultural and Mechanical College, situated at Blacksburg, Va., is doing a good work in training of young men.

The Richmond Institute and Hartshorn Memorial College, both at Richmond, have been established for the purpose of giving educational advantages in the higher branches to colored youths of both sexes, the first-named hereafter to be devoted to training of young men for the ministry. Both of these institutions, established by contributions from associations and individuals, are doing noble work.

The following is the list of the Richmond charities: Female Humane Association ; Protestant Episcopal Church Home ; Baptist

Home; St. Paul's Church Home; St. Paul's Church Home for Aged and Infirm Women; St. Sophia's Home, of the Little Sisters of the Poor; Richmond Home for Old Ladies; Retreat for the Sick; St. Luke's Home for the Sick; City Mission; Male Orphan Asylum; Female Orphan Asylum; Friends' Orphan Asylum, colored, male and female; St. Joseph's Academy, Parochial School, and Orphan Asylum; Magdalen Asylum, known as "Spring Street Home"; Dispensary of the Medical College of Virginia; Exchange for Women's Work; City Almshouse.

The above-named charities are well conducted, and doing a noble work, but no doubt can be improved by an interchange of views on details of management, in which opinion we are confirmed by a perusal of the report of your last Annual Conference.

Your committee is convinced that there is much need, especially in the prisons and poorhouses, of a more perfect separation of the sexes, and of having matrons in the prisons to have charge of the females. There is also a great need of more care in keeping separate the young and inexperienced from the older and hardened criminals. It is manifest that at present our prisons are schools of vice, especially in the cities. We are glad to be able to state that our city authorities have already taken steps toward the building of a House of Correction for the young.

WASHINGTON TERRITORY.

Mr. JAMES WICKERSHAM, Tacoma.—There are few charitable or correctional institutions in this Territory. The sparseness of the population and the opportunity to obtain a homestead on government land and begin a small business without opposition enable a man to be honest and above want. There are no poorhouses in the Territory, and out-door relief is seldom given by the counties. The Territorial Prison is at Seattle, on the line of the Northern Pacific Railroad, between Puget Sound and the Columbia River. The building is of wood, two stories in height, with twelve inch walls. The cells are all in the lower story, in two rows, eighteen cells in each, with a twelve-foot corridor between them in the centre. The number of prisoners is about seventy. The prison is leased to contractors, who are paid seventy cents a day for each inmate. They have the labor of prisoners besides, but are required to furnish guards, medical attendance, food, and clothing. The convicts work in a cooper-shop and on a hop-ranch near the prison; but the lessees have erected a sash and door factory, and will work them in

it. A new prison is soon to be built at Walla Walla. There is no "good time law" in the code; but the legislature by joint resolution recommends the governor to grant a commutation of sentence to deserving convicts, and it is done. The United States Penitentiary is on McNeill's Island, in Puget Sound, near Tacoma. The average number of prisoners is 20. Since 1873 there have been 195 in all. The only occupation of the prisoners consists in clearing land. The United States marshal is in charge. There is a county jail in each county, but badly kept. The promiscuous herding of young and old, men, women, and children, whites, Chinese, and Indians, makes of a jail a school of vice maintained at county expense.

The most respectable institution in the Territory is the Hospital for Insane, which occupies the old Fort Steilacoom barracks, near Tacoma, and is well managed by Dr. J. Waughop. This hospital has seven hundred acres of land, is well situated, and has an abundance of pure spring water. The buildings are old, and need constant repairs. An appropriation of \$100,000 for new buildings will be asked of the legislature next fall. The number of patients is 164, of whom 131 are men and 33 women. The cost of support is \$4.89 for each patient each week.

The Catholics maintain hospitals at Vancouver, Seattle, and Walla Walla, and orphan asylums at Vancouver and at Cowlitz Prairie. All classes are admitted into these institutions, and persons pay who can. The orphan asylums receive also the aged and infirm, male or female. The Episcopal church has St. Luke's Hospital, at Tacoma.

An earnest effort is to be made to secure the establishment of an asylum for the deaf and dumb, which is much needed.

WEST VIRGINIA.

Rev. R. R. SWOPE, Wheeling.—The State of West Virginia is but sparsely settled, the wave of emigration having passed over it to the territory beyond. There is but one place—Wheeling—large enough to be designated a city. The people of the State are mostly engaged in agricultural pursuits, and are industrious and thrifty. In such a community, the dependent class is small; and there has not been the need of organizations of benevolence such as exist in more populous States.

Ample provision is made by statute for those unfortunates who, by reason of ill health or other cause, are compelled to have recourse to public charity. The care of the poor in every county devolves upon the county court, which is empowered to appoint overseers of the

poor in every magisterial district, and to provide, when the same is needed, an infirmary, workhouse, or other place of general reception. But the number of poor persons to be cared for at the expense of the county is in many cases so small that places of general reception are not provided. When this is the case, the authorities board the poor with such person or persons as will take them at a small sum. This provision has supplied matter for numerous sensational articles in the press; but, so far as I can learn, no authenticated instances of abuse have been established. It may not be the best possible way of caring for the poor; but it is the best practicable, in the present condition of the community.

The State institutions for charity and correction comprise the Penitentiary, at Moundsville, the Hospital for the Insane, at Weston, and the Institution for the Deaf, Dumb, and Blind, at Romney.

The Penitentiary contains 223 cells, which are small, being but 4 by 7 by 7 feet, and are without forced ventilation. At the present time there are 256 inmates, thus requiring 33 persons to be doubled in these small cells, or else congregated in rooms which are not fitted for the safe lodgement of ordinary criminals. Such conditions are detrimental to the health of the prisoners, and account for the high mortality rate at the institution. In other respects, the prison is as well conducted as the average. The food supplied is of good quality, and is varied from day to day. The discipline is not strict, and the prisoners give one the impression of being well treated. The contract system of labor is in vogue; and, by this means, the prison is almost self-supporting. The earnings last year fell but \$165.86 short of the ordinary expenses.

The Hospital for the Insane, at the time of its completion, in 1881, was thought to be sufficiently large to accommodate all the insane of the State for years to come. The reports of the superintendent, for the last three years, however, show a rapid increase of patients. The hospital is now crowded to its utmost capacity; and there are many patients confined in jails throughout the State, waiting for admission. The whole number of patients under treatment is 764.

The Institute for the Deaf, Dumb, and Blind had an attendance of 126 pupils in 1884,—83 deaf and 43 blind. It is estimated that those who enjoy the elevating influence of intellectual and moral instruction at the institution constitute about one-third of the blind and deaf children in the State. It would be well to make larger provision for these silent and sightless ones.

This remark will apply to all the State institutions for charity and

correction. They are all inadequate to the needs of the population. The great resources of the State are attracting the attention of the capital. The population is steadily increasing, and there is a proportionate growth of the criminal and unfortunate classes. The State authorities should at once set about making the necessary provision, and in so doing will express the generous and intelligent sympathy of the people of the State.

There are several local organizations for benevolent purposes, of which it is difficult to obtain statistics. In Wheeling there is a Woman's Aid Society, which cares for the sick and destitute; a Children's Home, which cares for poor and neglected orphans, and finds them homes in respectable families; also a Hospital and an Orphanage, under the care of the Roman Catholic Church. These all accomplish, in a quiet way, a great amount of good.

WISCONSIN.

Mr. H. H. GILES, Madison.—The first biennial session of the legislature was held last winter. Several acts of importance, as affecting the dependent classes, were passed. It was made unlawful to let the keeping of paupers on what is known as the contract system; that is, to pay a weekly or stated sum per pauper, and give the overseer the use of the farm. With the expiration of existing contracts, counties will not continue to pay a premium for neglect of paupers by those to whose care they are intrusted. The powers of the State Board of Charities and Reform, in transferring chronic insane to and from county asylums, were enlarged and made more explicit. The superintendent of a county asylum, on the written recommendation of the county physician, is now authorized to allow an insane patient to go out, on leave of absence.

The legislature established a State School for Dependent Children, and appropriated \$30,000 to purchase a site and begin the erection of buildings. With this school in operation, all the defective classes will be provided for, except the feeble-minded.

During the year, Dr. R. M. Wiginton, of the State Hospital for the Insane, has taken the place of Dr. Walter Kempster as superintendent of the Northern Hospital; and Dr. Buckmaster, an assistant physician in the State Hospital, was promoted to the superintendency of that institution. No other changes in the official heads of State institutions have taken place.

Under laws passed two years ago, authorizing the establishment of private hospitals for the insane, one has been opened at Wauwa-

tosa, a suburb of Milwaukee; and Dr. McBride, the former superintendent of the Milwaukee Insane Asylum, has taken charge of it. He resigned his position as superintendent; and Dr. Scribner, his assistant, was placed in charge as superintendent of the county institution.

Wisconsin has six State institutions for the criminal, dependent, and defective classes. The State Hospital for the Insane, with an average population, last year, of 510, cost \$91,722.22, or \$3.46 per capita per week. The Northern Hospital for the Insane, with an average of 613, cost \$117,110.50, or \$3.67 per week. The School for the Deaf and Dumb, with an average of 205, cost \$35,666.30, or \$3.61 per week. The School for the Blind, with an average of 63, cost \$17,535.32, or \$5.34 per week. The Industrial School for Boys, with an average of 300, cost \$42,229.74, or \$2.71 per week. The State Prison, with an average of 398, cost \$53,949.52, or \$3.61 per week. The total average number cared for was 2,090.

Besides these, it has the Industrial School for Girls, managed by a corporation of ladies, for which the State erected buildings, and owns them. It has also the Milwaukee County Insane Asylum, for which it paid one-half the cost of the buildings; and it pays Milwaukee County \$2.75 per week per capita for the care of its own insane.

Twelve county asylums for the care of the chronic insane are now in operation, with an aggregate insane population, April 30, 1885, of 732. The number of insane under public care, at that date, was 2,177. We do not know of an insane person in the State, needing public care, who is not receiving it; and all who do not are humanely and comfortably provided for. The State Board of Charities and Reform confidently expresses the opinion that the long vexed question of the humane and economical care of the large and increasing number of the chronic insane is solved, in the system which that State has adopted, of county care under State supervision. Its peculiar features are: small asylums, which permit of individual attention, with the removal of all or nearly all restraint and the furnishing of occupation for the inmates. In numerous instances, the results in individual cases are surprising. There is a general improvement, both mental and physical, in nearly all the patients. The State board holds the purse-strings; and, if the care bestowed does not fully come up to the rules prescribed, the county authorities are notified, and the cause of complaint is at once removed. The cost or maintenance in the county asylums is from \$1.28 to \$2.27 per week. The average cost per week, last year, was \$1.79. The

varying cost depends upon the size and productiveness of the farm, as well as the skill or tact of the overseer and employés in inducing the insane to work. The asylum buildings are plain, substantial structures, costing from \$200 to \$400 per bed. No chemical restraint, so called, is ever used; and physical restraint has been reduced to its minimum. For April, the total restraints were: one man half a day in seclusion; one shut in his room for three days, another for three hours; and one kept in his room most of the time, by order of the county judge, against the wish of the overseer. For that month, the restraints other than seclusion were about the average for the past six months. There is but one crib-bed in sight in the twelve county insane asylums. In four of them, with an insane population of 289, no doors are locked between the hours of eight in the morning and six at night; and, in all of them, two-thirds of the wards have open doors during the daytime.

WYOMING.

No report received. •

III.

Provision for the Insane.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON PROVISION FOR THE INSANE.

BY JOHN B. CHAPIN, M.D.,

PHYSICIAN AND SUPERINTENDENT PENNSYLVANIA HOSPITAL FOR INSANE.

THE earliest expression of views adopted by any organization in this country regarding the care of the insane appears in the form of resolutions or formulas adopted by the Association of Medical Superintendents of Asylums for the Insane. Prior to the organization of that body in 1844, the construction of asylums for the insane, the nature of insanity and its treatment, the increase of the insane, and the probable demand for their care were subjects but little studied or understood in this country. The number of persons skilled in the treatment of the insane was small, and the knowledge they possessed of the nature of insanity was limited. The relations the insane held to the community were not clearly defined. The insane were scattered over a wide extent of country, confined in rooms at their homes, in jails and alms-houses, and their claims had not received general public consideration. Charitably disposed citizens of Philadelphia, New York, and Boston had been moved to make limited hospital accommodation; and the States of Virginia, Massachusetts, Maine, Connecticut, New York, and Ohio had created asylums for the insane.

The propositions, discussions, papers, and annual reports of members of the Association, extending over a period of forty years, comprise valuable suggestions and opinions upon the relations of the insane and the subject of insanity, embracing its treatment, plans for the construction of asylums, the jurisprudence of insanity, the obligations of the community to the insane, internal administration of

asylums, and the commitment of the insane. The propositions and principles of that body are of the most catholic and comprehensive character, contemplating for all classes of the insane a uniform, liberal standard of hospital care. To these propositions, that body as an organization has adhered pertinaciously, whether wisely or unwisely; and its work must stand to mark the beginning and end of the first period in the history of provision for the insane in this country.

A second period begins with the creation of the State Board of Charities of Massachusetts in 1863, and, subsequently, similar boards in other States, with large powers of visitation and supervision over State charitable institutions, including asylums, hospitals, poor-houses, and places where insane persons are confined. State provision for the insane, from causes that need not now be enumerated, has proved inadequate to the demand. While the minority have been, and are, in well-equipped asylums according to the prevalent plans, the larger proportion of the insane have been, and are, still, in poor-houses provided by counties, towns, and municipalities. The organic laws of the asylums provide, and public policy sanctions, a preference for the admission of recent and curable cases. The law and the usages of the asylums draw a line between cases considered curable and those regarded incurable, discriminating against the latter. At the beginning of this period, two systems of caring for the insane were in actual operation: the State asylums, managed by State officers reporting and responsible to the State governments; and county poor-houses or infirmaries, sustained and managed by local authorities, each according to a code of their own creation, differing in their policy and of no continuing policy, subject to no official visitation, examination, or report. The creation of boards of State charities and lunacy, with ample powers for the official visitation of all asylums, and particularly that portion of the insane not in asylums, is such a concession to an advanced public sentiment as to be regarded as the beginning of a new era. What commission has not been depressed and overwhelmed by the problems that confronted it, as, in the discharge of its official duty, it has moved from county to county, for the first time inspecting arrangements for the care of the poor,—the houses that contain the respectable aged and infirm poor, who have gone "over the hills to the poor-house" to spend the remainder of their days; the sick; orphan children; waifs; the degraded poor, reduced by vicious propensities and intemperance; the honest poor, who from lack of force or physical ability have drifted to the refuge of the poor-house; the imbecile, the idiot, and insane —

all cared for under one roof by perhaps a single keeper and his wife, with such aid as the pauper population of the house affords! These incongruous elements crowd the alms-house, not because it is the best place for them, but because it is the only receptacle perhaps that is provided. In the administration, the lunatic and the idiot are the discordant, disturbing elements. If noisy, melancholy, helpless, demented, filthy, or needing medical treatment, the insane person is misplaced in any alms-house. The lack of medical attendance, facilities for classification, attendants, utter ignorance of the requirements and nature of insanity shown in the plans of buildings, the system of appointments, which often permits the selection of improper officers, lead to the adoption of repressive measures, strong rooms or cells, rooms in dark basements or attics, isolated and detached sheds, unnecessary mechanical restraint, even chains and balls, scanty clothing, or the covering which straw affords. These establishments, as well as the asylums created by the State, represent both the average public indifference toward the helpless who are out of sight, rather than the true sentiment, and the degree to which the public conscience is quickened in discharging its duties to the insane when aroused.

The first effort of a board is to acquaint itself with the extent and scope of its work, which it proceeds to do by collecting histories of institutions, statistics, and facts, which are embodied in an annual report, together with such observations as the various inspections may have suggested. The earlier reports are usually full of startling revelations, abounding in subjects for serious contemplation; and, while the way to improvement and reform has not always seemed to be clear on the one hand, and embarrassments have existed in the other direction, meanwhile there has been the advantage gained of public agitation and attention, discussion, and diffusion of information, resulting in the imperceptible and quiet education of the board itself and the people at large. It has often consequently happened that, when a board was prepared to present an important recommendation or reform, public sentiment has been found to be in entire accord with it.

Of the 92,000 insane persons in the United States, 43,000 are not in asylums.* In the several States where Boards of State Charities exist, as well as in other States, their interests will be greatly affected by the policy which the boards may recommend and promote. No way has been found by which the support of the insane poor can be

*W. E. Sylvester, M.D., "Statistics of Insanity, 1885."

avoided or evaded. Like other dependents, they exist in every community; and the number increases from causes not fully understood or controlled. It is a recognized fact that, if they are promptly treated, a larger number will recover than if early treatment be neglected. A majority, however, of those attacked will not recover, but will live an average life, in a chronic condition of lunacy, for twelve or more years. What shall be the policy of the State in caring for the large and increasing numbers of the insane in their curable stage, and in their chronic state, so far as they have relations to the public by reason of their dependence, friendlessness, liability to neglect and abuse by reason of their helplessness, enforced deprivation of personal liberty, the cost and kind of public buildings for their occupation and their subsequent support, are the problems constantly before us as citizens and in our official relations. The State, it may be said, may be urged to establish, in its sovereign capacity, certain principles which shall govern somewhat uniformly the disposition of the insane. The State may insist that all cases of insanity over which it may exercise control, that require the custodial or medical treatment best furnished by a well-appointed asylum for their proper care, shall be sent to an established State institution. In exceptional instances, only such mild and harmless cases as do not require the care of an asylum may be permitted to be cared for in county institutions. The State may be urged to create *Boards of State Charities* and, where the magnitude of the interests will warrant, *Commissioners of Lunacy*, and confer, among other powers, authority to make visitations to all places where the insane are detained; to determine and prescribe a uniform standard of care for the insane confined in poor-houses, the number of attendants and the medical service; to approve all plans and alterations of county institutions designed for the care of the insane, as well as reasonable powers to enforce their regulations. The boards thus created should have authority to prohibit the use of cellars, attics, rooms without windows, and out-houses for the confinement of the insane. Special powers may properly be vested in such boards to investigate on complaint, or on their own motion, cases that come within their knowledge of alleged improper and inhuman confinement and restraint with chains in their own homes, such as are occasionally brought to public notice. Boards of State Charities and Commissioners of Lunacy should be empowered, if necessary, to invoke the aid of judicial officers to order summarily the transfer of any lunatic from a county poor-house or improper place of confinement to a

State asylum, if in their judgment the improvement of the condition or recovery of the insane person would thereby be promoted. Such powers now exist in some of the States in an undefined form, but may be properly enlarged and more vigorously exercised. Statutes may be enacted to provide special penalties for the wilful abuse of an insane person by kicking, striking, or whipping, which, if posted in the rooms of all attendants, would exercise a wholesome effect in preventing such occurrences. No objection ought to be made to these propositions. They are in accord with the humane impulses of our people, and, if expressed in the form of legislative enactments, would be accepted with universal unanimity. If executed, they would tend at once to elevate the standard of care of the insane, and not leave it, as is too often the case, to the caprice, changing policy, and supposed political expediency of localities.

It is believed the powers of Boards of State Charities in respect to asylums and many of the charities are wisely limited to examinations and reports of their actual condition and operations, and the investigation of alleged abuses or mal-administration, and that it is not a wise policy to commit to one central governing body the responsibility of administering their internal affairs. Whatever may be the objections to local boards intrusted with the management of State institutions, there are other largely compensating advantages in their favor. The asylums are thus brought in direct relation to the people, and a larger number of persons are interested and identified with their success. Boards of State Charities may exercise a wholesome oversight and supervision, observe the best methods, and urge their general adoption. The value of official reports of visitations to asylums and receptacles for the insane, with such minuteness of detail as will warrant the formation of an intelligent opinion of their exact condition, cannot be overestimated. Much may be thus accomplished toward the guiding of public opinion in the right direction, the correction of abuses and mal-administration, the moral support of officers in the discharge of their delicate trusts, as well as to elevate and improve an existing system. Encouragement and co-operation may accomplish more to this end than a spirit of criticism and fault-finding, which leaves a sting. If it has been worth the while to create hospitals and charities, it is of the next importance to cherish, strengthen, and sustain them against contingencies, mistakes, and influences constantly tending to their deterioration. At a time when a morbid, sensitive, sensational sentiment pervades the public mind regarding asylums for the insane, official

reports may reveal their actual condition, correct misapprehension, and disarm suspicion.

The tendency of legislation relative to the insane is toward a more rigid form of commitment to the asylums. This subject affects the interests of the sane and the insane, and should receive the careful consideration of the members of this body, as experience shows how exceedingly difficult it is to remove what are called safeguards of personal liberty. The question is too apt to be considered as one affecting solely the personal liberty of the citizen, and not as to the best disposition to be made of a person of disordered mind, whose best hope of recovery is the medical and moral treatment of a hospital for the insane. The law usually does not contemplate any distinction between the insane who are believed by physicians amenable to treatment and those who by reason of delusions are unsafe to be at large or have not the capacity to care for themselves, and require the custodial care of an asylum. While loose lunacy laws may possibly permit the admission of a questionable case at rare intervals, the number of cases of incipient insanity, nervous exhaustion and depression leading to insanity, mild forms of derangement in their early and curable stages, which will be excluded by a compliance with more rigid forms of commitment, or until an average juryman can satisfy himself of the existence of insanity, will be much larger. Physicians, who certify to the existence of insanity as a step preliminary to admission to an asylum, have been uncomfortably reminded of the personal liability which accompanies their action. Some of them hesitate therefore to act until the insanity is pronounced and fully developed. Superintendents of asylums, reluctant to incur risks, come to look upon a strong form of commitment as their secure bulwark against the public odium attending the allegation of an illegal detention of a person not insane. In the mean time, the asylum, originally designed, perhaps, as a curative hospital, the doors of which should swing inward and outward with equal freedom, is in danger of merging into a place of detention for chronics or a lunatic prison. Too little time has elapsed to form an opinion of the results that are to follow the laws recently enacted in several of the States. Without expressing a judgment as to the wisdom of the legislation, there are abundant indications that the number of cases brought to asylums in the recent stages of insanity as well as the number of recoveries are diminishing as compared with former years. The suggestion for the establishment of hospitals for the treatment of cases of mild forms of derangement and "nervous

cases" that has been made is a concession that the lunacy agitation of the past few years has resulted in surrounding the admission of recent cases with such forms as practically to exclude them, and that something must be done for these persons. It is worthy of consideration whether the doors of the hospitals might not open freely on a voluntary request for admission by those thus affected, who, in the judgment of the physician and superintendent, can appreciate the nature of the act they contemplate, and who shrink from the publicity and difficulty of a judicial commitment. Hospitals and asylums, having been created and erected for the treatment of the insane presumably in the curable stage as well as for other cases, the spectacle is witnessed of a disposition to hedge the admission of every case, whether for medical treatment or custodial care, with the same forms and difficulties.

A review of the lunacy history of recent years presents a gratifying advance of various measures for the improved care and treatment of the insane, which have received the approval and earnest support of the boards composing this Conference. Plans of asylum construction have been reviewed and reconsidered in the light of added experience and additional requirements, and wide departures have been made from former structures. The asylum at Willard, N.Y., with its central hospital building and groups of detached blocks; the detached buildings in connection with the Middletown, Conn., Asylum; the open wards of the Government Asylum, at Washington; the asylum at Kankakee, Ill., made up of separate blocks and a hospital structure; the proposed asylum at Toledo, Ohio; the recommendations of a large number of superintendents of asylums in the same direction,—show the tendency to adapt plans to classes and conditions of the insane. The possibilities have not yet been attained. The erection of the Bancroft wards of the asylum at Concord, N.H.; the projected cottage in connection with the Butler Hospital at Providence; the "cottage by the sea" opened under the auspices of the Friends' Asylum of Philadelphia; the Mountain House in connection with the Vermont Asylum,—foreshadow marked changes in the future plans for the insane of the private class. The time is not far distant when those who are obliged for any cause to seek the care and treatment of a hospital will not find the change from their own homes so great a transition as it is under the present system. While much has been done to improve the care and surroundings of the insane poor, there seems to be an equally important work to be done for the insane of the independent class.

Among the results that may be said to have been accomplished by the plans of recent years are a decided reduction in the cost of construction and in the maintenance of patients, as shown in the reports of the Middletown, Kankakee, Norristown, and Willard Asylums. While the tax-paying portion of the community has, with some justice, complained of a disposition to adopt extravagant plans and methods of construction, one of the great obstacles to more extended State provision for the insane is in a fair way of removal by plans embodying the general features of those asylums to which allusion has been made. There has been a gain to the insane in the willingness shown to make larger accommodations; in the increased personal liberty enjoyed; the opportunity to extend the various occupations incident to a large community; and in the construction of asylums which will permit the congregation, with segregation, of large numbers under the direction and superintendence of State officers.

It is equally satisfactory to refer to the improved internal condition and administration of many of the asylums. Candor compels us to acknowledge that some of the results have been aided by fair and wholesome criticism, which has furnished the moral support to bring about changes as well as an incentive to devise ways for improvement. It is an unfortunate error to cultivate an opinion that any human work is perfect or cannot be improved. Increased attention has been bestowed upon the internal decoration of wards, with pictures, plants, agreeable shades of paint, and bright stencils. The night service of asylums has been improved by employment of night attendants to care for suicidal cases, epileptics, and dirty patients. This service may be made more effective generally than is usually found to exist. In every large public asylum there is an accumulation of a number of bed-ridden patients, demented in a feeble condition, and epileptics. In the usual arrangement of a hospital, they do not appear to have a proper location. It is quite likely they are in wards where they are not desired because their habits and condition are offensive to other occupants, or they are in upper wards from which they have not the strength to reach the ground. Wards may be prepared for this class with large associated dormitories, to be attended with an efficient corps of night attendants; or, what would be a better arrangement, a separate building, one story in height, embracing a day room, or ward, and the dormitory with a few single rooms adjoining. The experience at Willard showed that ten per cent. of the whole number might be placed in a building of this character, a plan for which I submitted and recommended to the

trustees of that asylum. It seems that some special arrangement for this class is very desirable, where the number is sufficient to warrant it.

Notwithstanding the differences of opinion that have been entertained about the supposed necessity of mechanical restraint in the care of the insane, as a matter of fact a great and rapid diminution of its use has actually taken place. In many of the asylums, it is abolished or dispensed with, except in special cases where its use would not be questioned. The concurrent experience and testimony are that with its abolition there have followed an improved service in all parts of the asylum, diminished excitement and violence, and an entire change in the wards set apart for refractory patients. This great result has been rendered possible by the substitution of an improved personal attendance. It has not been, and cannot be, effected successfully by an impulse or the issue of an order. There must precede the patient training and preparation of a corps of attendants to appreciate that non-restraint in the management of the insane is the substitution of an improved and higher quality of personal attendance for mechanical and architectural contrivances, and that abolition of mechanical restraint is not the whole of the system. The existence and amount of restraint may be said to be the gauge and measure of the quality of service rendered by attendants in any asylum. Every superintendent, who may even regret its use, and earnestly endeavor to abandon it, may not see the way clear to do so, by reason of the inefficiency of his attendants or from causes beyond his control. It is important, as a step toward an improved service, to retain reliable head attendants and supervisors, whose example is of great value in training new attendants, by offering increased wages and allowances. A small increase of pay to a few attendants, with the understanding that they will care for the patients of the refractory wards without mechanical restraint, has proved to be productive of excellent results and the commencement of a non-restraint system. The amount thus required is an insignificant consideration in comparison with the great gain that will result to the whole asylum service. In a brief period, as changes constantly occur, a new generation of attendants will be found to be engaged in the asylum work, who know nothing of the use of restraint, and may never have seen it employed. Much of the mistrust and complaint about the care of the insane may be traced to the unwise and unfortunate selection and bad conduct of attendants, many of whom are asylum tramps, wandering from one asylum to another,

carrying with them their vices and demoralizing practices. The time assigned to this report will not permit more than an allusion to the important relation attendants upon the insane have to the best results we are all in various ways interested in promoting. I cannot, however, omit to notice and commend the establishment of a training school for attendants by Dr. Andrews, of the State Hospital at Buffalo, and the extension of the State civil service rules to embrace the selection of attendants for all of the State asylums of New York, as a public recognition of this important element in asylum administration.

The occupation and diversion of the insane have received increased attention, but will vary usually according to the class of patients received. Their employment should be governed by some principle having reference to their treatment and their relation to the economy of the asylum service rather than the pecuniary return to be expected. It would be an erroneous impression, if entertained, to suppose that all of the insane are capable of engaging in some kind of labor or occupation, or have the physical ability to do so. The majority of recent cases suffer from physical impairment or mental strain of some kind, and their insanity has been induced by overwork or deteriorating influences. They need rest and prolonged recuperating treatment. Every State asylum, however, contains a number of cases that have passed the recent stage, who are in fair physical health, but their mental state is stationary. The effort should be made with considerable persistence to divert this class from their fixed delusions, and from the idleness and inertness which so commonly characterize asylum life, into the ordinary and normal channels of thought and occupation. The primary object sought by occupation, diversion, schools, assemblies of patients, or in whatever direction the effort may be directed, is to arouse and fix the attention. Labor of a continuous and even monotonous kind leads to the formation of habits of industry which become fixed and re-established. No objection should be offered to the application of the avails of the labor of the insane toward a reduction of the cost of their support in a public institution.

There has been no purpose to introduce strictly professional topics relating to the insane that have a more appropriate place elsewhere, but it is proper to state in this assembly that superintendents of asylums and the medical profession are directing more intelligent attention to the therapeutics and pathology of insanity, and that these subjects now form a part of the system of medical instruction

in several medical colleges. The profession at large is becoming better informed about insanity and its treatment, owing, partly, to recent legislation devolving upon physicians the preparation of a certificate of insanity for admission to the hospitals.* The State of New York has applied its civil service rules to the selection of medical as well as other officers of the asylums. If such a departure shall prove an advance, it is likely it will be adopted elsewhere. The medical organization of asylums and hospitals does not appear to have received, however, that careful consideration due to officers, patients, and the great interest the State has in the best administration possible of these institutions. In a large number of States, the medical administration of asylums suffers from frequent changes, some of which, it is to be regretted, are of a political nature. Under these circumstances there can be no accumulation of valuable experience in the treatment of the insane. The tendency of legislatures to enter upon investigations on the presentation of charges by discharged employes or patients, notwithstanding the machinery for the examination of asylums and the correction of abuses is in active operation, is to be deprecated, as they are frequently sensational, tending to impair public confidence, and has had the effect to deter physicians from entering the public service, and to produce in the minds of those in the service a feeling of insecurity regarding their tenure of office. It is also a fact that the salaries paid are lower than the emoluments that attend the practice of medicine out of an asylum. It is particularly important that greater care should be exercised in the selection of assistant physicians, and that the senior assistants, if it be desirable to retain them, should be offered such compensation, in order that they may be induced to remain in the service, and that others may enter it with the reasonable hope of promotion. The medical superintendents of asylums will be, as a rule, and always ought to be, selected from the whole number of available senior officers, without regard to the narrow feeling or prejudice of State or locality; but it is every way desirable that the class from which the selection is to be made shall be as large as possible and well qualified.

Thanking you for your indulgence thus far, I have one more topic to present in conclusion. On the creation of a new asylum for the insane, it is the usual course for the appointing power to name a commission empowered to locate and prepare plans for its erection. The majority of such a commission is often without practical experience or knowledge of the requirements of an asylum, and may be

selected from the various considerations which usually influence appointments. In preparing plans, they too often inconsiderately reproduce existing plans with all their errors, and set about to erect a structure that will contribute more to the attractions of a locality than the healing of the sick. Every commission sets out, *ab initio*, to procure information by correspondence, personal visitation, and foreign travel, often at private expense. There is no repository of plans of asylums of this and other countries in the possession of any State government, or to be found here in the capital of the nation. Obviously, great advantage would result from the opportunity of studying the best features of all systems, if accessible in our State libraries. Whether similar knowledge of plans of other departments of State and county work — as buildings for care of the poor, work-houses, prisons, and reformatories — is equally desirable, I am not in a position to form an opinion. As all the States are constantly confronted by problems pertaining to the care of their dependent and criminal classes, and particularly the insane, it would seem to be within the province of this Conference to ask the Congress of the United States to make provision for obtaining and placing within reach of all our State governments knowledge of the best existing plans, for their future guidance in the erection of buildings for the public service.

ASYLUM CONSTRUCTION.

THE RECOGNITION OF CLASSES OF THE INSANE.

BY W. W. GODDING, M.D.,

WASHINGTON, D.C.

Those to whom the State confides the construction of its homes for dependent classes, notably for the insane, have constant need for the prayer, "Lead us not into temptation." Temptation in two opposite directions. On the one hand, of State pride, to build something to eclipse all its neighbors; of architecture, to sacrifice comfort to some mediæval renaissance; and of ostentation, to lose sight, in grand parlors, vaulted ceilings, and vast spaces, of all which betokens home,—halls which so oppress by their stateliness that one ceases to wonder that Marcus Aurelius said, "*Even* in a palace, life may be led well." On the other hand is a temptation, born of the reaction from palace provision, to see at how low a per capita cost

accommodations can be constructed, until there is danger that laudable economy may degenerate into a narrow parsimony, the State setting the example in scant liberality of accommodation, only to be early outstripped in the race of penury by the counties building gloomy, barnlike receptacles, mere human coops, illustrating the almshouse economy of cheap provision for the chronic insane. To-day, we excuse the inhumanity of such rookeries by saying of their unfortunate inmates, "Anyway, they are better dead than alive"; yet to-morrow, when the change comes to those pitiable lives, even as it came to Elijah, in a chariot of fire, somehow the startled community forgets that they are better so, and exclaims, "Another holocaust of horror!" No, not in the days of immuring alone have crimes against humanity been committed in brick and mortar that are not easily atoned. In view of these frequent asylum conflagrations, it becomes the first duty of those in authority to call a halt to any economy in construction which fails to afford a practically fire-proof provision for the helpless insane.

With one thousand insane to be provided for at one centre, what shall you build? For the purposes of this paper, I assume that a stereotyped form of asylum architecture is no longer deemed essential, that an asylum is subject to the same laws of construction as any other building, and shall consider briefly what modifications are desirable to adapt it to different types and conditions of the disease.

In assuming as my unit a thousand insane, I have taken for granted that the members of this Conference believe that a State should make provision for all of its insane. I waive the discussion of hospitals for acute cases and asylums for the chronic forms of insanity, the question of homes for boarding them round in the community, of provision by almshouse assignment under State control, or of any of the other ingenious substitutes for great aggregations of lunacy at central foci. I here neither approve nor condemn these projects, but, assuming that they will be fully discussed by this Conference at some other hour, shall confine myself to the simple question of the construction of accommodations suited to the thousand insane persons who would naturally need to be provided for at one centre, should a great State enter in earnest upon the work of caring for all of its insane.

Beauty and salubrity of site, abundant water supply, convenient proximity to markets, and ready accessibility for the community who are to be accommodated by it,—these are the axioms of asylum construction. I will only suggest that, in this land of boundless

domain, of homesteads for all, where even the myth of "forty acres and a mule" was based on but a reasonable expectation, there should be secured for the asylum site not less than one acre for every prospective inmate. Let this be obtained while the land is cheap. Go where it is so, if necessary; for there is nothing else so reasonable in price that will in the end prove so invaluable. Keep it in woodland, keep it in pasture, keep it in anything until ready to use it,—only keep it, sell your birthright rather than part with it!

Whatever we decide to construct for our thousand lunatics, it must be fire-proof, and recognize the distinction of sex. We may pass the executive buildings, the boiler-house, the stables, the laundry, the bakery, the kitchen, without comment, only advising for them distinct buildings rather than basements of any asylum structures; and we may venture to remark of the laundry, in passing, that the conqueror of Mexico did well in burning his ships, and that whoever, Cortez-like, burns his power washing-machines, will probably find that, by so doing, he has opened up one of the best avenues of employment for a class of violent female patients of robust health and abounding animal life. Of our thousand insane in round numbers, five hundred will be males. Of these, seven per cent. will need infirmary care, three per cent. will be halt and blind, five per cent. convalescent, five per cent. epileptic, five per cent. very noisy, five per cent. considerably disturbed, five per cent. depressed and suicidal, five per cent. especially dangerous, and ten per cent. careless and untidy in habit. The remaining fifty per cent. will be of varying capacity, but comparatively quiet, orderly cases. Seven-eighths of the whole will be chronic insane, but, since clinical observation shows no constant distinction as to violence, noise, untidiness, or other well-marked characteristic, to divide acute from chronic cases, we have no need to take this into account in considering the construction of accommodations. The question of their treatment in distinct establishments is entirely another matter, but not discussed in my twenty minutes, if you please.

Here, then, with our five hundred male insane, are at least eight classes that require special provision in construction, cases demanding bedsteads other than Procrustean. I say eight classes, allowing that the blind and maimed may properly be given a place in the infirmary, and that the disturbed and the very noisy may be provided for in distinct wards of the same building.

Certain fundamental ideas connected with the different classes should be recognized in the building of their accommodations.

With our twenty-five especially dangerous cases, everything should be subordinate to the idea of perfect security; and for this a distinct building is required. Whenever, in this paper, I say distinct building, the advocate of the congregate system of hospital construction will understand one distinct section; the believer in segregation, a separate structure, more or less removed. I am a believer in the segregate plan, but am devoting no part of my time here to arguing its merits.

In providing for the dangerous homicidal class, make them secure. The community must be protected from the escape of murderous, irresponsible cranks, at all hazards. The philanthropist has no call to loosen any necessary restraint on this class. Make the glove of silk, but the hand of steel. Provide for the most, if not all of these, in single rooms. Build them narrow, say seven feet, so that they can never be made to provide for two. In building for this class, it is not extravagant to expend at the rate of \$1,000 per capita; for, though dangerous, to them still belongs whatever of liberal provision is compatible with security. They may to advantage be employed at work in enclosed grounds: they have not forfeited their right to the sunshine nor the air of heaven, to the vistas of trees, nor the rest of green fields. The English do this sometimes with the happy arrangement of a sunken boundary, which does not cut off the view like a high wall, while it is equally secure. About the building for this class there should be an atmosphere of perfect security, that should be to the inmates, like the atmosphere, invisible. The wards should be small, admitting of being thrown together, with fixtures simple and substantial, giving no opportunities for concealment. Guard the windows, but do not narrow them; for, to those who are shut from the world, the heavens should be always open.

The twenty-five epileptics will require a distinct building, with at least two subdivisions,—one for the quiet and harmless, the other for the class at times noisy and violent. Probably, one or two will require to be confined in the building for the especially dangerous class. The prominent idea to be kept in mind in the construction of homes for the epileptic insane is to protect them from injury, and separate them from others. The cost of provision for this class need not exceed \$400 per patient. Make the woodwork plain and smooth, avoiding sharp-cornered projections; have the bedsteads low; furniture simple,—if padded and leather-covered, all the better. Single rooms not exceeding twenty-five per cent. will be needed, of which a part must be strong, perhaps padded. The majority will

sleep in an associate dormitory, with a night-nurse in charge of the whole, to prevent suffocation or other injury in nocturnal attacks. The idea in construction is to remove, as far as possible, all danger from injury in fits; but if, by the introduction of an open stairway in the dormitory, one could so enhance the danger from falling as to make the services of a night-nurse indispensable, I would recommend that the stairway be built, for there is no way in which penurious economy is likely to do more mischief than by taking away this same night-nurse of epileptics. The buildings and grounds of the epileptic class, while made pleasant in themselves, should, for obvious reasons, be somewhat secluded from the view of other inmates.

The fifty careless and filthy cases will require the service of night-nurses almost as much as the epileptics, in order that they may acquire habits of neatness. They also should have a distinct building and somewhat secluded grounds. In the construction of homes for this class, the end to be kept in view is convenience for their care with thorough, active ventilation. With the coming in of the era of fire-proof buildings, why not give them open fireplaces as well as open windows? The day-room should be on another floor from the dormitory, or at least divided from it by doors that can be closed. This provision of distinct day-rooms is not to be confined to this class by any means. Walls, woodwork, furniture, and floors should be finished smooth, and dressed with shellac, or some hard coating that will not absorb. As a disinfectant, use soap and water. Hot and cold water should be abundant and of convenient access; sinks, bath-tubs, and a soapstone wash-tub, with drying facilities at hand. The number of single rooms and the cost per capita will not differ much from that for epileptic insane.

The twenty-five very noisy and twenty-five disturbed cases will require a large per cent. of single, shuttered rooms, and should have a secluded building to themselves. The prominent idea in construction is the disposal of the surplus product, the noise of this class. Here, the folly of third stories is apparent. Build low, and some "thick embowered valley" capable of absorbing its echoes would be a most suitable site. Next to that, some distant point where a building could be so located as to throw most of its noise into stellar space. Provide ample grounds for out-door exercise and labor. Build solidly, plainly, with small wards; and, since there are always three or four who "out-herod Herod" with their racket, so manage your construction that they will disturb only themselves. The expense per capita will be at least \$600. The comfort gained will amply repay the ex-

penditure; and when science, in her study of the laws governing the conservation of energy, has found out how to convert sound into caloric, something may be saved on the heating apparatus of such a building.

The growing pages and waning minutes warn me how much must be left unsaid. The twenty-five depressed, suicidal ones must have a home built with a single eye to their safety,—an associate dormitory, a sunny day-room, and day and night over all the nurse's eye. Fill the grounds with "traps for sunbeams," green, shaded banks with their birds and flowers

"To comfort man,—to whisper hope
Whene'er his faith is dim;
For who so careth for the flowers
Will much more care for him."

Build for the twenty-five convalescents cottage homes at a distance from all sick sights and crazy sounds, with such arrangements for rest and comfort as shall reproduce whatever of the outside home is most pleasant and homelike. For construction, say \$500 per inmate, and give them a good send-off.

The fifteen halt and blind, with the thirty five sick, feeble, and fading lives, may have separate departments of the infirmary. I would build this invalids' home with ample space and careful studies of heat and ventilation. The building should have awnings for summer, open fires for winter, fresh, cheery spaces with pleasant bay-windows, and single apartments or curtained alcoves for those entering the gates of rest; a culinary department for the preparation of special dishes, arrangements for medicated, Turkish, and other baths, no lack of the appliances to soothe or to heal. Securing a dry basement, the principal hospital ward should be the first story above, with doors left unbolted, tempting to soft lawns and summer roses. To the second story, broad, easy stairs and an elevator, and there a sky parlor, with its sun-baths and winter garden of birds and flowers, and cosey seats inviting to repose. There should be the reading-room, with books and papers, stereoscopes and games, pleasant pictures on the walls, and landscapes opening away from the windows,—a room to rest in. \$1,000 per inmate to make such provision for healing would befit the almsgiving of a commonwealth.

What remains? The two hundred and fifty comparatively comfortable, reasonably quiet cases capable of labor, with a varying degree of usefulness. There is no objection to large buildings for this class, nor to third stories, now that we are to build fire-proof structures.

Third stories afford a pleasanter outlook, a fresher breeze in summer, and lessen the per capita cost of building. With provision for one-sixth in single rooms, the cost should not exceed \$300 an inmate. Classify them according to their tastes and condition, not forgetting to provide at least two wards with rooms for one patient each of the morally insane type — every hospital has need for such wards. Have your farm cottages and barrack lodges, your buildings for indoor industries, and rooms fitted for the individual workman. Do not forget to give them a smoking room as a solace when the day's labors are over. Plans should be flexible in their application, and beautiful by reason of their simplicity. You are not confined to one style or limited in regard to numbers under a single roof. If architecture in its dotage has gone back to Queen Anne and there is anything demonstrated in favor of living in one's front entry, give them a Queen Anne cottage. If an Italian villa suits your climate and situation, build it. Reproduce in your construction whatever is shown to be best adapted to their wants,

"Whether 'tis found
On Christian or on heathen ground."

Be liberal in the matter of open doors; and, when you are figuring on the number and width of your windows, do not be thinking how you can reduce next winter's coal-bills. I am impatient of the men who are no sooner born into God's sunshine than they proceed to wall it out. Let in the sunlight, and with it shall enter health and "angels unawares."

Remember, too, when you have rolled and clipped the lawn to a uniform velvet, and have had the gravel path swept clean of rubbish, that this is their home; and it is no matter if there is a little litter off in that corner, where they keep a small curiosity shop of their own. If they have grown some smoking tobacco where you thought they were cultivating roses, it is all right. If that dry-goods box contains a small pet terrier, let the patient keep him and help keep down the rats. That nondescript structure which shelters his rabbits looks as if it might be a joss-house. Perhaps it is; for, ah!

"He prayeth well who loveth well
Both man and bird and beast."

I never like to see a home with children too clean and nothing homely. God help your hearts, gentlemen, growing old, if these little disorderly things touch no responsive chord in your sympathies, vibrating back to the time when you were boys!

But my minutes are gone, and what an oversight! I have left those five hundred female patients out in the cold, and have built here not even a tabernacle for their shelter. No matter, for their buildings and grounds should be entirely distinct; and, with the bright new era just now dawning on hospitals, the woman physician comes to the front, and she will tell us what to do with them.

PROVISION FOR THE CHRONIC INSANE.

BY JOHN H. VIVIAN, M.D.,

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Whether or not insanity is increasing, whether the number of new cases increases relatively faster than the population, may be a mooted question. There is, however, no gainsaying the fact that the number of the insane is increasing actually and, I believe, relatively. Their proper care is therefore becoming year by year a graver question, both to the humanitarian and to the political economist.

To the former come these questions: Does our treatment of these unfortunates in our present institutions compare favorably with that pursued by other enlightened nations? Do our boasted increasing knowledge of insanity and skill in its treatment give very much better results than were obtained from the cruder ideas and less enlightened treatment of an earlier age?

To the latter come these questions: Are the results obtained commensurate with the immense annual outlay? Will not the increasing demand for greater and still greater accommodation for these increasing numbers soon become a burden to the tax-payer so great as to be intolerable, and result in the abandonment of all, or nearly all, intelligent public care, and return us once more to the era of jail and poorhouse incarceration?

The question of providing for the insane, especially the chronic insane, cheaply as well as humanely, becomes a question for the humanitarian to solve, or humanity, unrestrained by prudence and economy, may produce revolt on the part of those who have to groan under the fiscal burden. Our present systems of the care of the chronic insane vary in our several States, but, aside from difference of detail, are based on two radically different ideas. One may be called the system of aggregation, and the other that of segregation.

Under one system, the insane are congregated, acute and chronic,

in one mammoth building, with only such classification as can be made by the division into wards, and in numbers so large as to preclude the idea that it is possible to provide occupation, except for a limited number. This is the character of most of our so-called "Hospitals for Insane." A modification of the congregated system is the cottage system, so called, such as exists at Kankakee. This system possesses all the advantages claimed for the congregated system, such as close medical surveillance, and has some of the advantages claimed for the segregated system; namely, more home-like life and greater attention to occupation.

Another modification of the congregated system is the Willard Asylum of New York, which is an asylum for chronic insane only, consisting of several somewhat large buildings under one general superintendence.

The congregated system and its modifications are open to objection on the part of the political economist: to the first, because of the enormous cost of its palatial buildings; and to all, because of the cost of administration, when viewed as asylums for the chronic insane only. Examples of the segregated system may be found in the county asylums of the States of New York and Wisconsin. The Board of Charities of New York, in the management and care of its county asylums, is doing much to solve the question of humane and at the same time economical care of its chronic insane, and would do much more, had it the power it should have in this direction. Much credit is due to the board and its excellent secretary for the great good they are doing by their close supervision of these institutions.

The system adopted in Wisconsin has so far proved so successful that it has compelled at least the qualified indorsement of most, if not all, who predicted its dire disaster when it was first adopted as an experiment, and has received more than a qualified indorsement from so great an authority as Dr. S. D. Hack Tukes, of London, who visited Wisconsin for the sole purpose of inquiring into its system of county care for the chronic insane. His observations he presented in a paper read before the Medico-Psychological Association of London, and printed in the *Journal of Mental Science*. This system consists in erecting in different counties, as necessity may require, plain but substantial buildings for asylums, of a capacity for not less than forty nor more than one hundred patients. These asylums may be erected on the county farm, if there be one, or on a separate one, preferably on the county farm, so as to be under the

same general management and supervision,—not a part of the poor-house, but separate and distinct institutions. Into these asylums are received *all classes* of the chronic insane, except the homicidal. The men are employed on the farm and garden, and in doing all the outdoor work of the asylum: the women are employed in housework in the kitchen and laundry, and in sewing, etc. The main aim is to provide employment for all, if possible. If the employment can be made profitable to the county, so much the better; but employment must be found, for employment's sake. There is almost an entire absence of restraint, mechanical or chemical,—no crib-beds, no camisoles or cuffs, no hypodermic syringes, and, in most of them, no barred windows or locked doors. The absence of restraint, regular habits, good nutritious diet, comfortable clothing, are the adjuvants; while constant employment, pure air, and God's sunlight are the curatives. The transfer to these small asylums of patients from the large institutions has almost invariably been followed by an improvement in their physical condition, and often in their mental and emotional character. In these asylums and under this treatment, the violent become tractable, the noisy become quiet, and the filthy lose their filthy habits, and many who have been pronounced incurable during many years become sane or so far recovered as to be fitted to return to their friends and families; and, in one of these asylums, at least, the number cured or manifestly improved will compare favorably with the cases of acute insanity cured elsewhere. So satisfactory has been the result of this experiment (so called) that no more large institutions will be built in Wisconsin; and, if one of our present hospitals should be burned down, it is not probable that it would be rebuilt. The citizens of that State are satisfied that one of their hospitals has capacity for all the insane that are amenable to medical treatment, and that the chronic insane can be better and more cheaply cared for in the county asylums.

The superintendents are taken from the better class of farmers, and they and the attendants are paid good salaries. Wisconsin considers it false economy to hire cheap men to take care of these institutions.

The great objection that will be urged against this system will be and is that the patients are removed from "skilled medical skill." In my opinion, no greater fallacy exists than that which requires "skilled medical skill" as a necessary adjunct to the care of the chronic insane. Acute insanity may be amenable to medical treatment; but the chronic insane have passed beyond the domain of

medicine, as far at least as their insanity is concerned. Except the diseased brain, which is supposed to be incurable, these persons are healthy; none or few are sick; and, unfortunately perhaps, few die. The visits of a physician are required to be made at intervals of not less than two weeks, whether there are sick or not,—not so much for the exhibition of his medical skill as that he may act as inspector, and, if necessary, adviser to the superintendent. The frequent visits of some member of the State board or its secretary, at uncertain intervals, and without the foreknowledge of the superintendent or his attendants, is sufficient to keep them on the *qui vive*. And, as the State board holds the purse-strings, as far as the State appropriation is concerned, it is able to compel the county board to see to it that the inmates are well cared for in every respect; and, if the person selected by the county proves inefficient, it has only been necessary for the State board to notify the authorities, to effect a change. So it may be said of question of diet or aught else. The requirements of the State board have always been complied with.

Such is the system, as viewed from the humanitarian's point of view. Let us see how it shows when viewed by the political economist. The cost of our buildings, including administration building, varies from \$105 to \$300 per patient. This is for buildings exclusive of furniture. The State buildings cost five times that amount. The cost of maintenance, including salaries and exclusive of the product of the farm (the labor of which is carried on almost entirely by the insane), averages about \$1.80 per week, varying from \$1.25 in the cheapest to \$2.18 in the most expensive asylums. The difference in expense depends greatly on the productiveness or the contrary of the farm. The cost of maintenance of the State hospital is about \$4 per week per capita, and has been nearly \$5. The law of Wisconsin gives the State Board of Charities entire control of all the insane outside the State hospitals, and holds it responsible for their well-being. The board has power to remove from one county to another, if necessary, so that, if one county fails to care properly for them, the board will remove them elsewhere, at the expense of the delinquent county. The aim of the board has been to evolve a system which, while providing most humanely for the care of the insane, should bear the least heavily on the tax-payers; and it flatters itself that in its county system it has solved the question, as far as Wisconsin is concerned, and is satisfied that it is applicable in its entirety to all agricultural States, and with slight modifications may be applied to all. The board is as fully aware, as is Dr. Tukes,

that the efficiency of these institutions depends on the close supervision of the board, and that possibly they may in time become so numerous that no unpaid board will be able to give them the necessary attention. But "sufficient unto the day is the evil thereof." Changed conditions may necessitate changed laws, and Wisconsin at least may be relied upon to make such changes as are necessary to the perpetuity of its system. But, as long as the present members of its State board remain on it, they have no fear of the success of its county provision for the care of chronic insane, whether viewed in its humanitarian or economical aspect.

WHAT THE COLLEGE MAY DO TO PREVENT INSANITY.

BY EDWARD HITCHCOCK, M.D.,

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In discussing this subject, I desire to place significance on the fact that we are to consider what the *college* may do to prevent insanity, and not the work of the university, the training, the technical, or the professional school. And why take the college rather than the primary school or the university? Why not either go to the foundation of the edifice or to the crowning pinnacle of human intellect? Simply because the college is the main or leading part of the structure: it plans and erects the substance of the building, gives the ideal element to it, and elaborates some of the elements of its superstructure. And, besides, what have been the earliest educational institutions everywhere, which have ever gone first, led the way, and given the thoughts and impulses for the education of the people? Did the common school start in the dark ages, and the universities of Italy, England, and Germany spring from it as a seed? Our sturdy and intelligent ancestors of Massachusetts Bay, as soon as they built what they called a church, planted Harvard College, prayed for it, and labored for it. The common school came afterwards,—perhaps to some eyes of greater value; but, nevertheless, here and in Europe, the higher institution has been the progenitor of the common school.

The college has very much to do in preparing men for the work of the world in its higher grades of professional, business, and literary labor. It is expected to furnish many of the leaders of

thought in science, literature, government, morals, and religion, in commercial and mercantile enterprises, but not to give special education for any of the callings or professions of life. Has it then anything to do in the field of insanity?

The simple answer is that, while it may not directly meet or treat mental unsoundness or strict disease, it has much to do in forewarning of the enemy, in forestalling his presence, or in the prevention of insanity. Perhaps the first thing which a college may do to prevent insanity is to care for and give instruction upon personal bodily and mental health,—not how to treat disease, but so to furnish information, apparatus, appliances, and surroundings as to give the student incentives to take care of his health, and thus produce in him influences which may extend to others.

A modern necessity for a college is to have a department to look after the health, mental and physical, of the student. When the college graduate steps out into the world holding in his hands a piece of parchment on which is inscribed "B.A.," the expectant world may fairly suppose that he is not only able to think correctly and strongly, but that he can impart some of this power to others; and it has reason to hope that he can show the best way to do this, both in his physical and in his mental condition. So that compulsory physical exercise, rightly adjusted, is as much a necessity for the proper culture and education of a college student as are the requirements of decency, morality, or manliness, in making up the man. And the college is bound to furnish the means of giving instruction in personal health and to a reasonable extent the apparatus by which the student may secure at least personal cleanliness, exercise, and recreation. All this applies to the great bulk of our young men who go to college, and who are physically normal and well,—probably to four-fifths of the whole number. But there are always a few who go without rugged health and with an imperfectly developed body. For such, as well as for the rugged and the well-developed, the gymnasium can easily be so arranged as to correct the abnormalities of the one-sided man, the awkwardly moving man, and the poorly lunged man. This requires a special physical examination of every student, once and again, by competent medical authority; a careful weighing and measuring of the body both as a whole and in some of its parts; a test of strength of muscle; a looking into the condition of heart, lungs, liver, eyes, and ears; a study of hereditary and consequent tendencies to imperfection, specially considering any circumstances which will be more or less unfavorably affected by a

brain-working life. When this is secured and registered, the professor can at first, and from time to time, advise certain courses of exercise, and recommend apparatus to strengthen an imperfectly or too tardily developed condition of body.

Amherst College has gathered a series of these statistics from nearly every student for the past twenty-four years. By this means, statistical tables have been prepared, so that for a man either of given height or age—taken as a standard—it can be asserted what his data of certain vital statistics should be.

A college, then, may do something to prevent insanity by enabling and compelling its students to secure the highest physical development while in its course of training. And this daily personal habit, together with the instruction on general principles of health, which should be added, ought to help them in the callings of life to lead others in the way from and out of insanity. It follows, therefore, that a college should do something besides the practical and disciplinary for the individual student, to promote mental and physical soundness. It does not perform its whole educating work, unless it furnishes the student—in some way—with condensed and well-sifted general laws of health, and such a simple understanding of the structure, use, and harmony of action in all the powers that he may know how, at least, *not to abuse* the great physiological system within him.

Old Pliny said, "Simple diet is best; for many dishes bring many diseases." And, if stomach engorgement be a source of disease to-day, what shall we say of the repletion, the cramming, the stuffing, the satiety of the intellectual maw, as attempted by the *number*, not thoroughness, of so many courses in our higher schools of learning?

One defect that nowadays aggravates, if it does not actually produce, some insanity, is too little mature thought, quiet contemplation and meditation, in our courses of instruction. The popular plan is intense, rapid, and active thinking. As a recent writer says, "More men think now than ever before; but do men think more than hitherto?" In every realm of activity and industry, more is done than ever before, and this is equally true of all germ thought in business and intellectual work; but the thoughts are only born, and not matured. The result is crudity in work, waste of material and mind, and by no means so much satisfaction with work when said to be done,—nor the peacefulness, the rest, the satisfaction, the joy, and reflex influence upon nervous system and mind of some-

thing accomplished. The mind acts as a gatherer, not as a producer,—secures large crops, winters a barn full of stock, but has not good seed to raise the same crops for another year. Too much of our brain-work must be done among clatter, din, racket, and confusion, with the eye upon the second-hand of the watch and the telephone-call rattling at the elbow. The thought is not matured, the brain is pressed beyond its legitimate physical endurance and power, and there is soon an utter failure. It is speed that costs and kills, whether it be in express railway trains, ocean steamers, or human brains.

But how about an increase of bodily capabilities, compared with the tremendous expansion of possibilities for material and intellectual riches? Can man lift more, digest better, endure more of pain and hard labor now than ever before? Is he less or more near-sighted? Are there fewer deaf-mutes, insane, and idiots now? Have we beaten Milo, of Crete, who killed an ox with his fist, and then carried it a fraction of a mile? Is our time ahead of the Olympic race course? How does the New York Athletic Club compare with the old Greek ones? Has anybody beaten the Douglass of Walter Scott? With the increased power and facility for making books and newspapers, have we found a corresponding increase of brain capabilities? Though we have books elegantly printed and illustrated, have we an increased power of better and more mature thinking? To be sure, even a lad or maiden at school may astonish us with a rehearsal of scientific or historical facts which the greatest minds struggled after fifty years ago. Almost any one may have at hand a batch of ready-made ideas, and sling them around loosely, and with as brilliant an effect as the burning of steel wire in oxygen. We can buy a book for a dollar which will almost make us ashamed that we ever did believe in Edwards on the Human Will.

But does all this make the mind to grow in accord with physical and mental health? Is it the highest type of mental solidity and growth to cram, and unload as fast as the vocal organs can be made to articulate? Everything, not only physical, but organic, grows by periods of activity and subsequent rest; and the brain furnishes no exception to this law. Thoughts are not punched out, as are the coins in a mint; but, if worthy of anything more than a meteor's show, they are worked out by a slow process of crude production and careful manipulation, slowly turning them from side to side, laying them away on the shelf of reflection, and then over and again taking them down and recasting them, till they are garnished and polished.

As Lord Bacon says, "Read, not to contradict and refute, not to believe and take for granted, but to weigh and consider."

The college then may possibly do something to check insanity by so arranging its courses of study that the reflective processes, the calm and slow reasoning methods, shall have a larger place in the development of young men. The mind, to be healthy and sound, needs not only a substratum of positive and accurate pragmatical knowledge, but a garniture of culture which is not immediately determinative, absolute, and unalterable.

The college of to-day, by its strong leaning toward *optional studies*, excites, to say the least, a tendency to mental unsoundness, because in the formative stage this cultivates only a portion of the mental fibre, and leaves so much to lie unused as to induce disease, exactly as one decaying peach will soon contaminate a basketful. For, aside from acute cases of insanity, what is the prominent phase of life which determines our insane hospital population? Is it not found in those who have a limited range of ideas, be they lofty or lowly ones? These people may be the divine, poet, musician, painter, or inventor, or the farmer and day laborer, housewife and housemaid. It is not "the devil-may-care" of a jolly, lazy loafer, or the middling class of ordinary well-to-do people, who are the most likely to get into the asylum, but those who are hedged in by a monotonous and hideous brain toil or environed by disease or hereditary taints. The good Lord has made body and mind so as to work harmoniously, not only together, but in its each and every part; and "woe to him that striveth with his Maker!"

May not the college ask whether expert testimony and service, in opinions, judgments, and the treatment of insane people, are not often too arbitrary and sweeping in their power? In strictly professional duties and minute, intricate, and abstruse knowledge, of course there is an assigned and allowed place for expertry and professionalism; and they cannot be dispensed with. No one man may know or judge of everything; and there is peculiarly rare information acquired by long study, experience, and peculiar insight, as well as gifts, which are known even later than apostolic times. But, when the insanity of a man or woman is to be judged from rational symptoms in a large measure, why is a medical man better fitted to the work than any sound-minded man of some other occupation, who has a superior quality of character and brains? why any better even than a man of hard common sense, mature age, and with a wide experience of people in the every-day callings of life? The college then asks for

our lunacy commissioners, our boards of commitment and discharge of insane people, that they consist of men, and perhaps a sprinkling of women, of varied professions and occupations, in order to mete and righteously adjudge the attention to the multifarious forms of insanity. Do not the clergyman, the lawyer, the business man, the sensible woman, be she maid or mother, and picked men from other occupations, prove as good judges of the varied mental characteristics in people as do the physicians? Blend then the medical profession and the laity, when the State pronounces a person to be insane. Let the physical disease have even an undue weight in deciding the fact of insanity, but debar not a just balancing of the other features, characteristics, and symptoms so manifold, so potent, so decisive, in much of this great decimation of human hearts, homes, and lives.

It seems to be a settled fact that the care of the insane in institutions is best accomplished, where some occupation can be given to a certain class of the inmates, something for mind and body, or both, to do. Hence, always a farm or some cultivable land is one of the first requisites for an institution, where many can be employed in the healthiest of all work, or others allowed a range for recreation and outing. Some industries, too, like brush-making and basket-weaving, have been introduced. Games, lectures, dancing parties, light gymnastics, and kindred matters, are now considered as essentials in treatment. The college asks this Conference very respectfully, Why cannot some intellectual instruction be introduced, as a relief and assistance to many of these unfortunates? Perhaps there are libraries already, so that every patient can have a book at any time. This is very well for a limited class. But how about the larger number, who need stimulus, direction, and guidance from a teacher or attendant?

Could not instruction be offered by text-books of various grades, blackboards, and crayon illustrations,—the use of pen, pencil, and perhaps brush? How much better that the wards be made like the world and its occupations from which the inmates come than to keep before the mind the appliances of a hospital or place of confinement! Would a newspaper edited in an insane institution and managed by its inmates be better or worse for the patients? Why not encourage the patient in the occupation in which he was employed before he became an inmate, so far as the judgment of the physician would allow?

It is pleasant to note here that the idea of a school, or mental in-

struction, has been worked upon somewhat by Dr. Cowles, in the McLean Asylum at Somerville, Mass.; also, at Morristown, N.J., under the direction of Dr. Alice Bennett. The subject is now under trial every day. We shall hope for good results, when the thing has been fairly tested.

The college asks whether a predisposing cause to insanity just now may not be found in the crowding of more studies upon our primary schools. The good temperance people say that our youth must be taught the physiological effects of alcohol upon the body. The Commissioner of Agriculture has of late stated that acquaintance with the fundamental principles of agriculture should be enforced in our public schools. Instruction in some of the mechanic arts is said to be absolutely essential for our school boys, and it is already largely enforced. But where is there an addition of time or brain capacity which can be as easily furnished as can this excellent advice? What can be dropped, in order to make room for these necessities? What limit shall be placed on the work to be done by these tender brains? Would it not be very well to have the principles of common law taught to our boys and girls early in life? What is more important than that the great questions of labor and capital should be early impressed on the youthful mind?

Had we not better keep our common-school system—that which government may and should require—such that it will teach pupils how to carry on mental processes that every one in the republic should be required to know, in order to make them decorous, intelligent, and capable,—up to the point in which their profession or occupation for life must be chosen by or for them?

Let us have a care that we do not attempt so to cram the heads of the children that from one shall ooze out hydrocephalus, from another imbecility, another idiocy, another insanity, another epilepsy, another a bad temper, another great weakness, and so on *ad mala pessima*.

The terrible evil of insanity is on us, pressing harder and harder as our civilization and our Christianity are more and more developed. And though, at times, it seems as if we might almost give up the struggle, so fast does the terror creep up to, on, and *into* us, while apparently we make but little headway against it, yet no, no, no! courage, courage, courage! toil, toil, toil! and, by and by, some success. Humanity, at best, is poor enough; but we are built after a divine pattern. And when we see ourselves in the light that comes from above, and obey the laws which are perfect and absolute, when

we know more fully what they are, then may we say with the Poet Laureate :—

“What though the giant ages heave the hill,
And break the shore, and evermore
Make, break, and work their will;
Though worlds on worlds in myriad myriads roll
Round us, each with different powers
And other forms of life than ours,
What know we grander than the soul?”

NON-RESTRAINT IN THE CARE OF THE INSANE.

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The treatment of the insane has always included two distinct objects,—the treatment and care of the insane person in order to his restoration to society as an independent person, and the protection of society and (incidentally) the insane themselves from the effects of their diseased action. Both objects have been sought to be attained in the erection of hospitals or asylums for the insane ever since, in 1410, Juan Gilaberto Joffre, a Brother of Mercy, established in Valencia an asylum for the treatment of insane persons, to carry out the merciful methods he had witnessed among the Mussulmans in the care of the insane. The Spaniards copied, yet cursed the spirit of Islam at the same time.

The monks of Saragossa seem to have especially carried out the law of kindness in the treatment of the insane. Their hospital was established in 1425, and Spain may well claim the merit of discerning the true methods of treating this class of unfortunates. Any reader of that wonderful book, *Don Quixote*, will not fail to be struck with the accurate knowledge of how insanity affects the springs of human thought and action, and also with the broad spirit of humanity that characterizes the allusions to the treatment of the insane. There has been, doubtless, a continual succession of good men, who upheld the law of love in the treatment of the insane; but the general line of thought was the protection of society from the acts of the insane, and the houses which piety established for their improvement and cure became, in time, only places for their detention.

In all ages, as now, the two ideas contend for mastery. So long as the protection of society is the prominent feature, we hear of patients

being chained securely to the walls or floor or in iron cages; when the idea prevails that the insane have rights which the community is bound to respect, then we have Chiaruggi, Pinel, and Tuke, each in his special way, in his own country, about the same time, quietly demonstrating that protection of society could be attained without the severities then thought necessary; that love and kind acts were stronger bonds than iron chains.

"Mightier far
Than strength of nerve or sinew, or the sway
Of magic portent over sun or star,
Is love."

The problem to be solved is how to combine the protection of society with the least infringement of the ordinary rights of men who may require isolation during their progress to recovery, or, that hope failing, during their necessary detention on account of their mental disorders. What has been contributed to its solution in America?

Very little is generally known of the treatment of the insane during the colonial period. When the United States emerged from the Revolution, there were three hospitals in which insane persons were received for treatment. Violent persons outside, doubtless, were treated as criminals, and confined in the wretched prisons then existing. There probably was then generally, as in many places now, a feeling of indifference to their fate as a class.

McMaster, in his *History of the People of the United States*, only makes this reference to them in his interesting chapter upon the State of America in 1784: "Keepers knew no other mode of silencing the ravings of a madman than tying him up by the thumbs, and flogging him till he was too exhausted to utter a groan."

A year or two before that time, James Otis, one of the earliest Revolutionary leaders, and the foremost orator of his day, had died, after many years of derangement, during which he had been in seclusion at Andover. It is pleasant, therefore, to catch any glimpse of better things existing there, so that we may indulge the hope that his affliction was not aggravated by the austerities so generally in vogue. There was a physician in Andover, Dr. Kittredge, who treated insane persons, having ten or twelve at a time under his care. He boarded them in two or three families in the town. These families were presided over by women, most of whom had husbands, strong, fearless, capable, and good-natured. The patients were under little restraint, but were under constant supervision. Whether they had any violent cases is not known. They were occasionally

bled, to reduce the strength, so that the patient might be the more easily controlled.

"In one of my rides into New Hampshire," says Samuel Breck, "I passed through Andover, Mass., a town where insane people are well nursed and comfortably boarded. Suddenly, a man darted through the gateway of a good-looking house, and ran up to my carriage. I knew him. He was a Mr. Searle, a merchant of Newburyport, whom I had frequently seen at Mr. Codman's. He recollected me immediately, and after some conversation inquired for news. I happened to have a Boston paper of that morning, and gave it to him. He thanked me, and retired. We pursued our journey, asking each other what could have brought Mr. Searle there. On our return, we heard for the first time the cause. It was a singular one. Searle was connected in maritime commerce with a Mr. Tyler. In the prosecution of their business, they had been so extravagantly successful that Searle's mind was upset. The first symptoms of a disordered intellect were shown by a purchase, which Searle made on his return to Newburyport from Boston, of all the property between the two places,—a distance of forty miles. His malady soon increased, but I thought no more of it." He mentions, also, the acquaintance he formed with William Knox, brother of Gen. Knox, "a well-bred gentleman, extremely well educated, but possessed of feelings too sensitive for his future happiness on earth. He had been American consul at Dublin, and became deeply enamoured of a lady there, who did not reciprocate his love. It preyed upon his spirits, until it brought him to a madhouse. He lost his reason, and such was the cause assigned."

"A year or two after, being in Philadelphia, some members of Congress invited me to accompany them to the Pennsylvania Hospital. On entering the long room downstairs, the first object near the door was a man clad in a blanket, with one leg chained to a block. I looked on him with pity, and immediately recognized Searle. He knew some of the gentlemen. One he called his Tully, another his Cato; but he addressed me by name, Samuel Breck. Said he, 'I have to thank you for the newspaper you lent me at Andover.' He had scarcely pronounced my name when I heard it very loudly repeated in a distant part of the room. On looking round, I saw a sick person in bed beckoning to me to go to him. I approached the bed, and to my sorrow and astonishment found William Knox in it. The poor fellow did not detain me long, after begging a cent to buy snuff. Both these unhappy gentlemen were soon relieved by death, Searle dying first in consequence of a wound in his thigh, and Knox following a month or two after."

Remember the Pennsylvania Hospital was attended by the ablest physicians of Philadelphia of that day, including the celebrated Benjamin Rush, who wrote the earliest and, in many respects, the ablest American work upon diseases of the mind. Let us glance at his treat-

ment of mania. After recommending mild measures, dictated by the purest benevolence and sound reason, he indicates, in case of their failure, that modes of coercion must be had recourse to: first, confinement by strait-waistcoat or tranquillizing chair; second, privation of accustomed food; third, shower-bath for fifteen or twenty minutes. If these fail, a resort to the fear of death. He adds:—

By the proper application of these mild and terrifying modes of punishment, chains will seldom, and the whip never, be required to govern mad people. I except only from the use of the latter those cases in which a sudden and unprovoked assault of their physicians or keepers may render a stroke or two of a whip or of the hand a necessary measure of self-defence.

Evidently, the whip was to be carried in anticipation of these sudden and unprovoked assaults. Is not this constant preparation for the exceptional the occasion of converting the exceptional into the usual?

His medical treatment was no less heroic: bleeding, solitude, darkness, low diet, purging, etc., cold air, shower baths, all to reduce the system. Yet with all these absurdities there are mingled much acute observation and genuine kind feeling. Dr. Rush's influence on the treatment of insanity was deeply impressed upon those who devoted themselves to the treatment of the insane. Reducing remedies for the excited, bleeding, etc., while terror, fear of punishment, were the moral agencies relied upon. The will was to be subdued by these or by strait-jackets, chains, solitude, and darkness. Their evil propensities and habits were thus combated, and little, if any, appeal was made to the nobler parts of our nature. In the other asylums of the day, doubtless, the same treatment was pursued.

About the beginning of the century there was a private establishment kept by Dr. Willard, in a little town on the line between Massachusetts and Rhode Island. The main fundamental idea of his treatment was to break the patient's will, and to attain this object at every risk. If strong words would not do, strong blows were tried. This was thought to be the proper way, and no secret was made of it. One of the plans was submersion. The doctor had a tank prepared on his premises, into which the patient, enclosed in a coffin-like box pierced with holes, was lowered by means of a well-sweep. He was kept under until the bubbles of air ceased to rise, when he was taken out, rubbed, and revived. There is a strong probability that the same process of treatment was practised in early days in one public institution. It is said that Miss Dix once witnessed the process.

I have been told that when the Maryland Hospital was changed from a general hospital to one especially for the insane, in 1834, the insane were regularly chained at night, and the more violent chained and kept in iron cages. Gradually, the day began to dawn upon these benighted beings. The impetus was given by the establishment by the Society of Friends of their asylum at Frankford, followed by other establishments in other States, in which the good of the patient was consulted equally with the protection to society. Kindness began to be the rule. The confidence of the patient was sought, his tastes consulted, his evil tendencies repressed, not so much by terror and coercion as by developing his good qualities. Their treatment was differentiated. Some were trusted and encouraged to occupy themselves in various pursuits. They were treated as men to whom the tender offices of love were due. Their higher qualities were appealed to. As early as 1819, it was thought advisable to address their religious feelings. In the first sermon preached before the insane, Aug. 31, 1819, I find the following sentence:—

There must be a benevolence which will, though at an immeasurable distance, imitate the mercy of Him who, in curing the broken and bewildered spirit of demonomania, took him by the hand and lifted him up.

The hospitals of the middle of this century were opened by men of this spirit. Before the idea that all physical restraint could be dispensed with was met with anywhere, we find healthy labor insisted upon, amusements introduced, open-air exercise insisted upon, religious services instituted, and a more generous diet superseded the reducing remedies of their predecessors. Dr. Lee, too early lost to the profession, in the report of McLean Asylum of 1835, four years before Dr. Conolly abolished restraint in Hanwell, says:—

"Useful labor is always the best employment. . . . We have seen the very best results from labor. One patient, who was brought to the institution in irons, and who until employed was constantly raving and excited, when furnished with occupation became quiet. He braids and sews four or five cane hats a week, besides spending his evenings at games, and, except when interrupted by the entrance of strangers, is peaceable and quiet. Most of our farming, the sawing and splitting of nearly all our wood, have been done for the last eight months by patients. The influence of labor has been most salutary upon all engaged. No instance of a contrary tendency, and no accident, has occurred, to my knowledge." And he quotes with approval the statement that, at the principal hospitals in Spain, those of the insane capable of working are distributed every morning into separate parties. "An overlooker is deputed to each class, who

apportions to them individually their respective employments, directs their exertions, and watches over their conduct. The whole day is thus occupied in salutary and refreshing exercises, which are interrupted only by short intervals of rest and relaxation. The fatigues of the day prepare the laborers for sleep and repose during the night. Hence, it happens that those whose condition does not place them above the submission to toil and labor are almost always cured; while the grandee, who would think himself degraded by exercise of this description, is generally incurable. No punishment is in any case permitted; and the only measures which can be regarded as corrective are the deprivation of some accustomed privilege, change in location, and occasional use of the shower-bath with the noisy and filthy. Personal restraint is in no case made use of, except with those disposed to destroy clothing or other property, and with the furious, to prevent injury to themselves or others. The number is always small who require personal restraint."

Dr. Lee died the next year; and the faithful steward, Mr. Tyler, made the next report. It was thoroughly imbued with the same spirit, as may be seen from the following extract:—

We opened the dome of the male wing as a carpenter's shop for the patients, having secured the services of a judicious carpenter to superintend and work with them; and, although we were confident of success, our hopes have been more than realized. Not the least accident has occurred, although the patients have not been restricted in the use of tools; and herein, as I conceive, our safety lies. Give a man constant employment, treat him with uniform kindness and respect, and, however insane he may be, very little need be feared from him, either of mischief or violence.

Perhaps, among all the early medical superintendents, none relied upon labor more thoroughly than Dr. Woodward, of Worcester Asylum.

"In one of my daily visits," he reports, "to the hay-field, I found four homicides mowing together, performing their work in the best manner, and all cheerful and happy. In an outbuilding there is a carpenter's shop below, and above a shoemaker's, and also a place for making hair mattresses, where are made all those required for the institution. The men also cut, saw, and pile the wood used as fuel." Female occupation was equally abundant and varied. Amusements were not neglected, and Dr. Woodward's medical treatment was by no means slight.

When Dr. Brigham opened the New York Asylum at Utica, in 1843, and strongly urged both the practice of trades and out-door employment "except for very recent cases," amusements and other occupations were abundant. He established schools for the cultiva-

tion of the minds of his patients, in which systematic efforts were made to teach certain branches of knowledge. It would tax too long your patience to cite other illustrations from the work of other superintendents, to show how *personal* attention to the varied wants of man's nature, careful adaptation to the individual of his treatment, was gradually superseding the reliance upon coercion by intelligent alienist physicians. I cannot forbear one illustration of the gentle methods and discerning spirit of Dr. Kirkbride. A female (in 1843, he reports) in the house, of great strength, whose violence had been a source of trouble in the ward, had been repeatedly induced by a child not yet seven years old to retire, to undress, and to take her medicine, when no persuasion of attendants could avail, and when force could not have effected the object without difficulty.

Gradually, certain instruments of coercion disappeared. Shower-baths for punishment began to be condemned, and their liability to abuse pointed out. They are now rarely to be seen, and no alienist would defend their use.

Attention also began to be paid to the decoration and furnishing with homelike furniture instead of prison-like furniture the apartments of the patients. But, I think, it may fairly be said the reliance upon labor became less, upon drugs more, and upon the minute details of discipline, to bring the conduct of patients to a more uniform standard. To move as directed, to be seated as required, and a torpor like the order that reigned at Warsaw, was the ideal of a well-regulated hospital, in many minds. Amusements, in which they took a languid interest, were substituted in a large degree for healthy labor. The wisdom of doing without restraint was not acknowledged by American superintendents, though some of them resorted to it but little. The patients were treated considerably, as are children; but the rompishness of childhood was repressed, while the intelligence of manhood was not appealed to. The flood-tide of disciplinary management has partially subsided, and the old mountain-tops gradually reappear. Reliance upon labor in chronic cases, and in many acute cases, is again the order of the day. In various institutions, the majority of patients are occupied, some by labor, some by regular exercise; and idleness is the exception, and not the rule. Scientific treatment is more discriminative, and better adapted to the physical indications of diseased action than ever before. Precision replaces imperfect observation. Trust has replaced timidity, and it has been found that confidence engenders faith in the person trusted toward his physician and attendants. More

patients are allowed privileges unwatched. More open wards are to be found. Ingenuity is at work to give the buildings for the insane a better outward resemblance to the classes in which they may be divided. Detached buildings for certain classes, and the usual strong walls, are confined only to the class needing them. More trust in personal character is thus evoked; and a more thorough acquaintance with individual patients becomes necessary, to guard against mistakes in assigning their residence. There are now many hospitals in which no personal mechanical restraint is used, and in many others there is very little. Many men act better than they think. They feel, as Dr. Nichols said, that it wounds their sense of human dignity to see any patient under mechanical restraint; and, while they may defend its use on theoretical grounds, practically they do not use it. There are now, in the United States and Ontario, at last, many institutions in which no mechanical restraint is used. There are more in which but little is employed, and that little prescribed by the physician to be employed, just as he prescribes medicine, and not left to the option of a subordinate. In the latter, we may rely upon the individual judgment of the physician as to its necessity, and yield to his right to judge of the treatment of his patients. But there are others in which restraint is not thus restrained by the judgment of its adaptation for the benefit of the particular case, but for the mere convenience of others. A recent visitor relates that he visited one asylum purposely on a Sunday, and counted twenty-six patients in restraint, not one of whom he should have thought of putting in restraint. On asking the medical officer the reason of this, he was told that not nearly so many would have been in restraint, had they not been very short of attendants on Sundays; and, therefore, it saved trouble. At another asylum which he visited, he asked how it was such and such a patient was restrained; and the sub-governor said that, when he went round in the morning, the patient was not in restraint. Whereupon, he (Dr. Baker) rejoined, "Surely, you do not allow the attendants to place people in restraint?" "Oh, no!" was the reply: "of course not! They are always bound to report in the evening, when they do so." Between the first two classes there is little difference and no dispute. It is simply a matter of judgment in the treatment of individual cases whether to use mechanical restraint or not, which is decided, conscientiously, for the benefit of the patient. However they may differ theoretically upon the question of restraining or not restraining a patient, both will condemn delegating it to an attendant or other subordinate, and using it to save trouble to

others. I believe that it is possible to manage an institution without mechanical restraint, except in surgical emergencies, in very exceptional cases. My own experience leads me to this conviction,—that the task is rendered easier by the use of labor and occupation, but does not depend absolutely upon those adjuncts. I will admit that there may be, now and then, cases which, perhaps, might be benefited by restraint; but, while the individual might be helped (possibly, not certainly), I am sure the use of restraint upon others deteriorates the sensitive feelings of the spectators; that attendants are made more indifferent to suffering every time restraining apparatus is employed by them, their reliance upon force is increased, and their cultivation of their own mental resources and tact is made to appear of less importance. I am not vain enough to suppose that I should escape the same deterioration. Who led the way in dispensing with personal restraint among us, I cannot positively say. I think, however, Dr. Stearns first tried it, about 1876 or 1877. It is of little importance, however.

There are at least twelve institutions in the United States and Canada in which no restraint is used. It may be said that there are many more in which there is more personal freedom allowed to patients, and less restraints, than there were five years ago. There is more supervision of the insane than ever before; and this is largely due to the exertions of Boards of State Charities and similar bodies under other names, and to the public discussion of the subject in this and similar bodies. I am sure that the ratio of accidents among the patients has not increased as anticipated by objectors. The absence of restraint does not do away with all the concomitants of insanity. Exacerbations of the disease occur now as formerly, but are met and treated more considerately and dispassionately.

I have preferred to treat the question purely from an American point of view, without reference to foreign authority; but I have so often heard the authority of the late Dr. Lauder Lindsay, physician to the Murray Royal Institution at Perth, quoted against non-restraint and his formidable array of its failures, that I am tempted in this instance to depart from my course. The failures he instances are due to the want of forbearance of attendants, not, I am sure, less often witnessed when restraint is employed than when disused, and to the want of faith in some of its advocates. But practice is better than precept, and I quote Dr. Lindsay's practice as stated by himself:—

In 1854, I entered on the management of an asylum that was opened in 1827, fully provided with all the then fashionable appli-

ances for the imposition of mechanical restraint; namely, stalls, fixed chairs, movable bedsteads, fixed and movable strait-waistcoats, manacles, strong leather gloves and belts, etc. All these I found in 1854, some of them in constant use, especially at night. I found it also hopeless to introduce a new order of things without a new staff of attendants, the consequence of which conviction being that I ventured upon an experiment made neither by Conolly nor Gardiner Hill. I changed my entire staff of attendants and servants in a single day. I had previously gradually eliminated the use of all the appliances referred to,—in fact, had got them out of the house; while, with my new staff, I adopted in its entirety what Conolly and Hill describe as the “new,” or non-restraint, system. And I have never since I became physician to the Murray Royal Institution used any of the forms of mechanical restraint so much objected to by Conolly and his disciples, unless experimentally, in order, for instance, to determine some means of confining the hands in some cases, while allowing, on the one hand, some movement of the arms and exercise in the open air, and on the other not involving any repulsive, prison-like peculiarity of dress. This is, however, not the place to detail the experiments in question or their results; nor is this the fitting time to submit a history of the circumstances under which, at Perth, a total abolition of mechanical restraint was carried out much more swiftly than either at Hanwell or Lincoln.

I may be pardoned if I am reminded of the servant who, when directed to do a thing, refused, but straightway went and did it, and received the commendation of the Master!

In 1877, at a discussion upon this subject of restraint by the medical superintendents of American asylums, one gentleman, Dr. Kenan, of Georgia, said, “I do not think we have enough of it in our institution, or that it has arrived at that perfection which I hope to see.” The majority preferred mechanical restraint to the restraint of attendants’ hands long sustained. Probably, if reduced to the alternative, most people would. But that is not the alternative. Is there no struggle in placing the patient in restraint? One gentleman, Dr. Clark, of Ontario, suggested that drugs were largely used, so that the most maniacal cannot go out, not being inclined to do so. “I prefer to be free, open, and candid in these matters, rather than to desire to ride on a popular wave, and at the same time, behind the door, allow the restraint to be used. I have given mechanical restraint a full trial under strict surveillance; and I indorse freely what has been said of its use, in extreme cases, as a part of treatment toward recovery.”

In 1884, the same gentleman, in his report, says: “Our record in this respect is that of several years past. We have had no need of

camisoles, muffs, mitts, or covered beds, so they have not been employed, except that in one surgical case it was found necessary to use a muff for a few days. In our male refractory ward there has been no restraint for over eight years!"

Dr. Bucke, among the majority at the same meeting, wrote in his report of 1877, "As for non-restraint, I do not believe it ever can be or ever was practised: it would be a worse cruelty to many patients than the old chains and strait-waistcoats of Bedlam." But, in 1884, he writes, "I was then young in the experience of the insane, and, as is often the case with beginners, dogmatic in the inverse ratio of my experience." And then he relates: "In this asylum, we have, with a total average population of nearly nine hundred patients, for fifteen months absolutely discontinued mechanical restraint and seclusion; and we have not replaced them by any forms of restraint whatever." He has also increased his proportion of occupation, amounting now to 84.31 per cent.

If there be any place where the use of mechanical restraint would be required, it would seem that an asylum for the treatment of insane criminals and those who had committed homicidal and other violent acts would be such a place. Yet, in the last report of the State Asylum for Insane Criminals, at Auburn, N.Y., Dr. Macdonald, the medical superintendent, thus emphatically gives his opinion:—

Tendencies to violence on the part of patients have greatly diminished since the total and final abolition of restraint two and a half years ago, so that what was known as the "refractory ward," under the system of chains, shackles, handcuffs, camisoles, muffs, wristlets, and "crib" beds formerly in vogue here, and which subsequently, under the milder form of these restraints then deemed necessary, was called the "disturbed" ward, has gradually changed in character, until now it may justly be classed as a *quiet* ward, although still occupied by our worst and most troublesome cases.

In another place, referring to mechanical restraint, he writes:—

"In this asylum, we no longer even think of using it. In fact, a majority of our present corps of attendants have but little or no idea of its mechanism, and would be at a loss to know how to apply it, were it placed in their hands for that purpose. In the light of such experience, candor compels the admission that, whereas I formerly thought mechanical restraint almost a *sine qua non* in the treatment of a certain class of cases, and so advocated it, I now not only regard it as unnecessary, but I sincerely believe that such cases may be managed far better and easier without it. . . . Under the old system

as formerly practised here could be seen, to an extreme degree, the manifestations of violence, noise, and confusion which have been characterized as the American type of insanity; while, under the present methods, the ordinary condition of all the wards is one of marked order and quietude." He thus sums up the whole question: "It seems to me that with suitable attendants, whose sympathies and training are in that direction, any superintendent who will make a fair, thorough, and impartial trial of non-restraint in the management of his patients cannot fail to be favorably convinced, even though it be against his will."

Similar testimony might be gleaned from the reports of other hospitals for the insane. Dr. Bryce, of the Alabama Insane Hospital at Tuscaloosa, in his report for 1883 and 1884, says:—

Over two years ago, we determined to give the system a fair trial in the wards of the Alabama Insane Hospital. Like most of our *confrères* in other well-managed hospitals, we had for many years resorted to mechanical restraint only in exceptional cases; and a patient confined by either camisole or leathern mittens was a rare sight in our wards. But, becoming convinced that the system was wrong in principle and injurious in its results upon both the patients and those who had the care of them, we concluded to abolish it entirely. I desire now, after a somewhat extended trial of the system, to record my unqualified conviction of its great value and perfect practicability in the management of the insane.

With the banishment of manual restraint, many of the objectionable features of hospital life have entirely disappeared. The temptation to rely on coercion rather than kindness is removed when the power of resorting to mechanical restraint, either by threats or its actual application, is withheld, and the physician, nurse, or attendant, as the case may be, finds himself compelled to resort to gentler and more rational methods of discipline.

Hand in hand with the disuse of restraint has been the increase of useful employments and congenial occupation of the patients in that institution.

Dr. J. C. Shaw, in 1880, read before the Conference of Charities at Cleveland a paper upon the successful introduction of the methods of non-restraint in the King's County Asylum, New York; and he has, I believe, steadily continued the good work with most excellent results.

Dr. Fletcher, of the Indiana Hospital for Insane, has also, during the past two years, shown the entire practicability of managing a large hospital for the insane (he has about fourteen hundred patients, I believe) without having recourse to any mechanical restraint; and so of

other institutions the same may be said. And, further, it may be confidently asserted that, wherever the system has been faithfully and conscientiously attempted, it has succeeded in establishing its superiority over the methods it superseded, so that none who have tried it are willing to abandon its practice. Speaking for myself, after more than eight years' careful trial of non-restraint in the treatment of the insane, I am convinced of its practicability, its expediency, and its beneficial results. Every day increases my appreciation of its merits. In 1876, when at the Athens Insane Asylum, where our means of mechanical restraint had always been restricted to the "continuous sleeves," or "camisole," I directed its entire disuse. In the four hospitals of the insane of which I have had charge, I am happy to say that in *three* of them no mechanical restraint is now employed. My successors at the Athens and Columbus Asylums (Drs. Richardson and Finch) have not only continued in this line of treatment, but have steadily advanced in the development of the various details of the system more thoroughly in some respects than I have been able to do, so that I am happy to acknowledge that success has justified their prudent boldness. My own experience at the Maryland Hospital for the Insane, as elsewhere, enables me to indorse to the fullest extent the claims made for the non-restraint system by its most enthusiastic advocates. It is true it "does not," as somebody has sneeringly remarked, "make a lunatic asylum a paradise all at once"; but what I said before you at Cleveland, in 1880, I repeat now: "Absence of restraint will sweeten the tempers of the whole household. Its presence is irritating and degrading to the innate self-respect of the lowest intellect. It saps his manhood." Non-restraint substitutes tact for force. It leads to forbearance in the adjustment of the patient and his environment, instead of exacting an unthinking compliance to arbitrary regulations. It does not wound the self-respect of the patient, nor blunt the sympathies of those around him. It modifies the feelings of all concerned, and promotes a mutual feeling of trust in the better qualities of our common nature. It diffuses among the patients greater confidence in the justice of those controlling the institution. It enables us to trust our patients more, to make their detention less irksome, and to give them more occupation. It welcomes and develops every agency which adds to the comfort of the patient, which enables him to control his wayward thoughts and propensities, and thus confirms his self-discipline, which substitutes incentives to self-control for repression, and cringing to terror,—which, in a word, takes him by

the hand, and gently leads him back to the paths from which he has strayed. The whole question is summarized in Prior's well-known lines, very slightly altered : —

“ Be to their virtues very kind,
Be to their faults a little blind,
Let all their ways be unconfined,
And clap your padlock — on the mind.”

THE CARE OF THE INSANE AT HOME AND ABROAD.

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As the credence and weight of authority accorded an observer varies as well with his opportunities for observation as with his ability; and, as the limit of this paper rather necessitates statements *ex cathedra* from my own experience, I think it proper to say what that experience is, especially the part of it which has been in other countries, as I do not claim to possess that keenness of perception which enables one in a rapid summer tour to form accurate and reliable opinions concerning the care and treatment of the insane in countries with governments, habits, and social distinctions greatly different from our own.

After several years spent as an assistant physician in asylums in this country, I was, through the kindness of Dr. Herbert Major, medical superintendent of the West Riding Asylum, Yorkshire, England, allowed to serve as resident medical interne in that institution for a period of six months in 1879 and 1880; and afterward, through the kindness of the superintendent, Dr. Thomas S. Clouston, I had a similar opportunity at the Royal Morningside Asylum, Edinburgh, Scotland. It is hardly necessary to say that a position in these institutions and association with these men enabled me to see the methods of caring for the insane in England and Scotland at their best.

After returning and spending over two years as physician and superintendent of a State lunatic hospital in this country, I went to the continent in 1883, and passed a year in special medical study, chiefly in Germany and France, which gave me a good opportunity of observing the care of the insane there, through inspection of institutions and association with those interested in them; and, more

hurriedly, I visited those in other countries, including a review of Great Britain.

The headings under which it seems to me most convenient to arrange my remarks are:—

First, Structural provision for the insane;

Second, Treatment, under which I shall only speak of occupation and mechanical restraint;

Third, Supervision by central governmental authority.

STRUCTURAL PROVISION.

In provisions for heating, ventilating, lighting, and attendance to the ordinary bodily comforts, the average excellence of the institutions in those States of the Union with which I am familiar is decidedly greater than in European countries; but it must be remembered that a difference as striking is apparent in private dwellings, so that the standard of judgment must be modified to allow for national peculiarities. And, disregarding those differences which represent simply degrees of luxury, and adopting an expert standard, it is my opinion that we lose our first place.

This results chiefly from the fact that our large hospitals are constructed as though the legal conception of insanity were the correct one, and all insane people alike,—and not only that, but all of the most disturbed class. I think the American alienist can learn more in Europe from the non-existence of special provision which he sees than from inspection of the details of any such special provision as exists.

Perhaps Gheel, the Belgium city of the simple, illustrates this as well as any place I can select. Here, sixteen hundred insane persons live, fifty of them in an asylum building, the remainder in ordinary dwellings with families, sharing completely or partially the family life and occupation.

There is enough to criticise at Gheel; and, as one climbs the ladder in an outlying farm-house from the comfortless living room, with its primitive *pot de feu*, to the filthy, close, miserable loft which serves as the patient's sleeping apartment, it is difficult to think that there is any aspect in which it compares favorably with a modern American asylum. But it must be remembered that the wage of an able-bodied laborer who boards himself is there twenty cents per day, and that the per capita cost of the pauper insane is twelve to eighteen cents daily (sixty to ninety centimes, according to the amount of attention needed).

The important fact for us is that a large number of patients suffering from all varieties of insanity are there cared for under not very close expert supervision, and twenty-nine thirtieths of them in homes similar to those in which they were reared.

Gheel, as is well known, is a town almost solely composed of the insane and their keepers. It is a social abnormality, rooted in superstition; and I should be sorry to think that our civilization would allow its repetition here.

But the system at Gheel certainly shows a better adaptation of a variety of means to the varied conditions of disease than does the uniformity of immaculate corridor in our great hospitals. It may be claimed that this uniform structure, that seems all adapted to the most disturbed, can be arranged so as to make comfortable and satisfactory provision for the tranquil and orderly. This I believe to be strictly true; but it costs too much, making it impossible to secure proper provision for all the insane, and necessitating overcrowding and scrimping in the necessities of support and treatment to a degree most unfortunate for the appreciative and curable patients.

Another serious objection is the effect upon superintendents of the supervision of this mass of complicated machinery. It forces them to make their routine duties too largely of a non-professional character; and superintendents of hospitals are not always such prodigies, nor is the science of medicine so easy, that they can keep in the van of their profession after attending to duties that an overseer of a factory would consider full occupation. Simplicity and variety of structure lessen this difficulty greatly, and enable the superintendent to classify in such manner that he can devote his individual attention better to such patients as seem susceptible of improvement rather than making his personal work with patients very superficial by attempting to extend it over too large a number. I do not, of course, claim that any system will enable a superintendent to do much with individual patients and at the same time supervise a great colony; but I do claim that proper classification will enable him to do very much more in the ordinary State asylum population of five or seven hundred.

No one who has not lived in a hospital having variety of accommodation suited to the different classes of its patients can appreciate fully the influence for good which it exerts. I speak feelingly, because I have seen it, and because I am now an officer in a hospital of most expensive construction, where I consider a lack of this variety one of my greatest misfortunes.

It is but proper to say that the degree of the error we have made in some of our hospitals could hardly have been anticipated twenty years ago. Then, researches, chiefly of Dr. Pliny Earle, had not forced upon us the unwelcome truth concerning the curability of insanity. Also, various influences have been changing with great rapidity the character of our patients; and those who increased our asylum provision on the basis of the population existing a generation ago were likely to go far wrong.

This is practically what was done. Fifty years ago, our better asylums were probably as good as the world then knew. They were of such moderate size that the personality of the chief could pervade the details of all departments; and they were filled with such cases as a comparatively new country would send,—probably more largely such as needed rather close custodial care. Now, I come from one of the most thickly settled manufacturing districts in the entire civilized world, where crowded tenements have taken the place of cottage homes for great numbers of people, rendering the conditions of family life such that many formerly cared for at home must be sent to hospitals. These same changed conditions and the influx of the wrecks of European civilization have produced degenerative mental disease to a degree that could hardly have been anticipated; and we have enlarged our hospitals beyond the limits of the old system of paternal government, without the classification necessary for the adoption of another, and have provided for a population like the old, which does not now exist.

This mistake of building for an imaginary population, quite different from that which comes, is not peculiarly American, and is, perhaps, only more noticeable here because our variety of structure is less than in most other countries. I have never seen it more strikingly shown than in a new hospital, near Dobran, in Bohemia, which is one of the most expensive on the continent of Europe.

A council of distinguished professors selected its plan, and made very extensive provision for the multitude of paralyzed and feeble patients which crowded their city wards, but which had no existence in rural Bohemia. The arrangement would have been admirable for Vienna or for Eastern Massachusetts, where such patients abound and no adequate provision is made for them. So frequent is this error that I have never seen an asylum thoroughly well adapted to the work it had to do, unless it had grown structurally with its own population, so that each addition could be adapted to that particular class for which the original building did not furnish a proper place.

The advantage which attends this plan of construction is well shown at the Fife and Kinross Asylum, Scotland, where central asylum structure and detached buildings have been proportioned one to the other in such a way that it is nearer a model rural asylum for the poor than any I have seen elsewhere.

Time will not allow me here to consider work that deserves recognition, which has been done in several States in the way of varying hospital structure to aid classification and in classifying, by taking care of some of the insane outside of State hospitals or asylums.

TREATMENT.

Occupation.—I consider occupation first under the head of treatment, because I believe it to be decidedly the most important means at our disposal. With our present knowledge, treatment by drugs cannot be assigned a high place, either from a rational or empirical stand-point; though I believe that life is saved and health restored in a small minority of cases by their use, and should be sorry to discard them, as some physicians now pride themselves upon doing. On the contrary, a skilfully directed occupation, which will divert the mind and exercise the muscles, is the great desideratum in nearly all cases of insanity where physical weakness is not extreme.

In this, we have doubtless been behind most of our European neighbors, and particularly behind Great Britain, though their accomplishments are not quite so great as some of our writers would have us think; and our advance has been so rapid within the past few years that many of our hospitals, in view of greater difficulties, now show a most creditable result.

The chief of these special difficulties, at least in the Northern States, is unquestionably our climate,—a difficulty that meets us on every side in providing and caring for the insane.

In most European countries, they are able to till the soil almost continuously through the year, and thus to furnish what is decidedly the best form of employment for most patients, with little interruption. Here, the extreme cold renders this impossible during considerable of the year, except for such patients as were previously accustomed to exposure or able to attend intelligently to their own protection.

This impressed me forcibly on visiting an asylum near Prague, early in March. I was prompted to the visit, because I had frequently been told that the patients were there more fully and profitably employed than in any other part of the Austrian Empire.

Certainly, I never saw a more satisfactory scene at an asylum than the broad, sunny hillside, which was there cultivated as a market garden, and dotted over with a hundred or more insane patients, each working at his own little plot without disturbing his neighbor, and yet near enough for fellowship. But such work could not be done in Massachusetts until two or three months later, and, when I asked the superintendent, who was not a medical man, what he did for employment when they could not work out of doors, he answered, "Nothing," but said that such days were few. He informed me, also, that a good part of those I saw had been accustomed to this kind of work before their insanity, and that he did not succeed well with those who were not. His only other special employment was shoemaking; and he said that, in this also, he was able to accomplish little with novices. This testimony is confirmed pretty generally by those who have attempted the employment of the insane. At the West Riding Asylum, when I was there, thirty men were engaged in hand-loom weaving,—an employment most admirably adapted to the insane on many accounts, as it was cleanly, interesting, and involved the use of little dangerous machinery or tools. But there, too, it has been found impracticable to accomplish much with those not previously trained to the work. In a neighboring shire, where hand-loom weaving was not practised, an attempt to utilize it as employment for the insane was a failure; and Dr. Major, superintendent of the West Riding Asylum, told me a year ago that he feared it would be necessary to discontinue it there, because fewer weavers were admitted.

This is a fact of great practical importance, which has often been overlooked by those who have written upon the employment of patients abroad. We have been somewhat laggard in appreciating the value of employment, and prone to furnish our asylums with complicated apparatus for doing what patients could better have done themselves; but I have searched other countries pretty carefully, and have nowhere found so many patients successfully employed on unfamiliar in-door work as may be seen brush-making at various hospitals in this country, notably at Norristown, Pa.

Had the necessities of other countries been as great as ours, I will not say what they might have done; but the fact is that the necessity and obligation are chiefly ours, and we can find little to assist us among them.

Mechanical Restraint.—Though this subject has been discussed almost *ad nauseam*, and though there seems to me to be a tendency

on the part of some superintendents to make the amount of restraint too solely the criterion of asylum excellence, it is true, as I said some time ago in an article* upon some statistics of the late Dr. Wilbur and of Drs. Bannister and Moyer as to the comparative frequency of restraint in Great Britain and America, "that this question still continues a most important one in America; and we are certainly fast retrograding, if there was good ground for the assertion which we often made five years ago, to the effect that the practice of American hospitals in regard to mechanical restraint was at that time about as nearly right as it could be, and was likely to become the universal practice of the world, for the amount of mechanical restraint now used in American hospitals is probably not more than a fraction of what it was at that time, and the zeal shown by most asylum officers in attempts to substitute something better for it certainly does not indicate complete satisfaction with the present practice. The tables of Dr. Wilbur's article, though obviously inaccurate and worthless for comparison of individual institutions, and those of Drs. Bannister and Moyer, certainly do not exaggerate the amount of restraint used in this country; and they fairly show that the occasions of its use are still a thousand times as frequent here as in Great Britain, and that this does not result, as has often been claimed, in fewer suicides, less 'chemical restraint,' or less seclusion, and they serve to indicate with equal distinctness, to one familiar with the character of the hospitals there mentioned, that the number of American institutions where mechanical restraint is not used with such frequency as to be proof positive of poor or insufficient attendance is still in a minority. This minority now seems debating whether a small amount of restraint is desirable or whether it is demoralizing to hospital organization, even when at the minimum, and its use inseparable from its abuse, which is practically the position taken by alienists in Great Britain. If all American hospitals had reached this stage, there would be little reason for criticism. When an intelligent physician, experienced in insanity, decides, after a careful investigation of the individual case, that it is wise to tie an insane patient, it is, in my opinion, all right, and probably the best treatment that that particular physician can employ, though another might improve it, as he might change the drugs in a prescription with advantage; but, when this care is used, the fact is that something better is usually thought of, and, if the occasion for restraint is determined by any one other than the intelligent physician, the practice is all wrong. The

* Report on progress in mental disease, *Boston Medical and Surgical Journal*, vol. cviii., No. 16.

article of Drs. Bannister and Moyer indicates that the determination of the occasion for restraint may be made by non-medical officers or by attendants, in most of the hospitals examined by them. Their tables, also, show that much of the restraint is for the purpose of preventing 'violence to self' or to others; and this is undoubtedly largely used to save the attendants trouble or to economize in their number. If proper care of patients is accomplished, I think that violence to self will not be considered an occasion for restraint, except in those rare cases where the patient dashes and throws himself about, apparently oblivious of any attempts at remonstrance or restraint.

"In most of these rare cases, I think the medical indications are best met by securing the patients to bed by properly applied restraint during much of their excitement. Properly applied restraint does not, however, mean bands so strong and tight that the physician can leave his patient to the occasional visits of the night-watch, confident in the belief that he will be found in the same position in the morning, but easy enough to require, as a supplement, the near presence of an attendant, who can keep the patient clean, and loosen the bands, and allow changes of position in case of abatement of excitement, or sleep.

"These cases are probably not sufficiently frequent to furnish occasion for a fiftieth part of the restraint now used in this country; but it is well enough to remember them, with some others, lest in our new zeal we vie with our British brethren in ignorance of all uses of restraint, and apply it in occasional cases as awkwardly as they are apt to do."

It must be remembered that Great Britain is the only country where complete non-restraint, or a very near approach to it, is universally practised. In Germany, most of the better asylums use restraint not at all or very little; and the tendency toward its disuse is certainly fully as strong as in this country. This is also true of Austria and Switzerland, and Belgium, in a less degree. In France, its use is more general; and I have never personally seen what appeared to me such a decided abuse of it as in the women's wards at Charenton,—a hospital for private patients near Paris, the scene of Esquirol's former labors, and having much the same position as the Bethlehem Hospital, London, or Bloomingdale, the Pennsylvania Hospital, or McLean Asylum in this country.

It is but fair to the French alienists to say that the director there was a non-medical man, and I do not know the amount of authority

possessed by the physician. Therefore, the statement often loosely made, that we are far behind the rest of the civilized world in using restraint at all, is not true. It is my opinion, however, that in this, as in many other matters connected with the care of the insane, Great Britain is in advance of other nations. Non-restraint has its drawbacks, which are not always fully recognized; and when I hear a new convert, who finds all *couleur de rose*, I am inclined to suspect either that he is in a position where his experience is limited, or he has been previously accustomed to considerable abuse of restraint.

Attendants, being submitted to unrelenting exasperation by some patients, are likely to lose their temper rather more frequently than when they can put the patient *hors de combat* by a strait-jacket; and certain exceptional patients, who persistently attack their fellows, cannot be prevented from having rather more frequent opportunities for injuring them. It has been my practice for some years past to question intelligent and reliable patients who recover, just before they leave, as to their experiences in the hospital, and to ask them for suggestions. Recently, in such a conversation with a very intelligent and trustworthy lady, who had recovered from several violent attacks of mania in different hospitals, she said: "You will perhaps be surprised to know that what has impressed me as the worst thing about your hospital is the absence of restraint. A few patients are thereby allowed to irritate the attendants and their fellows almost to desperation without being benefited themselves. I have often worn restraint in other hospitals, and much prefer it to the struggling with attendants which I have seen during this recent attack." It may be said that the hospital was overcrowded at this time, and proper classification was impossible, or her trials would undoubtedly have been less, as one of the advantages of non-restraint is that it forces classification and individualization. This is one side of the question, and many cases can doubtless be instanced in which restraint is advisable; but, in a hospital, its almost complete non-use is essential to the proper training of a staff of attendants. Here, as in general society, a few must suffer for the good of the many. If attendants know that restraint exists as a last resort, they cannot be trained to exhaust all other means before adopting it; and the physician, as well as the nurse, is continually tempted to abandon the difficult task of individualizing the patient, and treating him as his changing mental condition requires, for the safe, sure, and easy tying. This is well exemplified by the remark of a nurse who applied to me for a position, bringing a recommendation from a hospital where I knew the man-

agement to be most kindly. I told her she seemed rather frail physically to care for disturbed patients. She replied, "I had charge of a ward of the most violent patients; and I liked them better than the others, because, after the bad ones were restrained, they made less trouble."

Seclusion — which means the shutting of a patient alone in a room — I mention only to say that the records of the lunacy blue books of Great Britain show only a fraction of the actual seclusion practised, as it is very common there to compel patients to remain in their rooms in various ways without turning the key on them; and this is not considered seclusion. I mention this because it seems to me that their tendency to follow a supposed British practice leads some to avoid seclusion of patients, whose condition renders withdrawal from others and exclusion of light and noise the most rational of remedies, lest it should appear as neglect to the reader of their record books.

State Supervision.— This subject is one which I deem of paramount importance in our country at present, and I should be glad to say something that would lead this audience to use its vast influence upon public opinion to secure it in proper form. It is thus important, because it is an essential condition to the success of any comprehensive system that gives the needed variety of care to the insane. I believe such a system should include large hospitals, city and State, private hospitals, private-house care, asylums for the criminal insane; and probably it will be necessary to add, for a certain class of cases in some localities, small asylums under the immediate charge of local poor-boards.

First. That such a varied system should be suited to the needs of a State, and that the proper distribution of the different classes of patients should be made, requires a careful, expert study of the whole insane population by one who has time to devote to the work, and whose view is not restricted to a local horizon.

Second. No part of this system gives sufficient surety to society, without expert supervision, except the large hospitals, which have boards of trustees and varied connection with public officials; and even these are prone to be influenced by local prejudices.

Patrons have no trustworthy criterion for judging of the excellence of private asylums, in its absence. And bad ones may flourish unchecked, while good ones fail to receive the approval they merit. Private-house care, either with public or private patients, is not permissible without an expert to pass upon the propriety of such

care in each case, as well as to inspect its quality from time to time. The care and skill with which this is done form a prominent element in the success of the Scotch boarding-out system, and, indeed, the essential of safety for any treatment of the insane which does not confine them closely.

Third. The hospitals vary greatly in the quality of work accomplished; and no influence is so powerful to make the excellences of the better ones universal as the well-considered criticism of an expert, which carries also the weight of official authority. A comparative study of countries which have and which have not expert commissioners seems to me instructive on this point. Great Britain alone has had a well-organized system of expert supervision of its insane, long enough to judge well of the results, and in England and Scotland alone is there anything like uniformly good care of the insane. I believe also that the pre-eminence of Scotland is largely due to the fact that her central board, from its different organization, is able to work more comprehensively and advantageously.

In all other countries, uniformity is lacking. Some hospitals are excellent, and others strikingly poor.

Fourth. It is a right of the individual insane to have some competent and skilled outside authority to appeal to. Particularly is this true of those possessing property, as a variety of changes often conduces to their happiness or welfare,—changes, which the guardian or relative is unwilling to make without expert sanction; and the tendency of a superintendent of an asylum is likely to be against the trial of a doubtful experiment, which costs him a valuable patient. In England, the patients who have property under charge of guardians are especially provided for by the appointment of the Lord Chancellor's Visitors in Lunacy, whose expenses are paid by assessment upon the property of the patients; but I think the Scotch system, which gives one board supervision over the insane of all classes, is better in its workings, and can be more readily adapted here.

But I may be reminded that we already have central charitable boards in many States, possibly most. I appreciate highly the work that some of these have accomplished. Certainly, my admiration for many of the devoted men and women connected with them is unbounded. But, almost universally, they lack, so far as insanity is concerned, that knowledge which is the proper companion of authority.

Some of the expert duties relating to individual patients, which I have mentioned, they cannot assume. They are unable to judge intelligently concerning the quality of professional work done in the

different hospitals; and their opinions are prone to lack that discrimination which would render them valuable to those who have the immediate care of the insane, and which it is only just they should have, in view of the great weight of authority they exercise upon the public mind. At least, partly for these reasons,—and I am free to allow that the faults have not all been on the non-medical side,—there has been prone to exist between State charitable boards and hospital officers a very unfortunate lack of harmony, which, I think, the officer suggested would do much to annul.

I feel at liberty to speak of this frankly, because I am a thorough believer in the desirability of these charitable boards and estimate highly the value of what they have accomplished for the insane, and because my own relations to them have always been pleasant and harmonious.

I would not suggest an expert board in the least supplanting or replacing the State boards already mentioned, because the appointment of several salaried experts would involve an entirely unnecessary expense in territories as small as our States, and because I deem the non-expert element, which represents enlightened public opinion, and possesses business capacity and experience, and a zeal which routine work has not dulled, no less important than the expert.

The expert should be appointed to work with them, though I do not think that he should receive his appointment at their hands; and, as an incompetent expert is worse than none, it is essential that the salary and tenure of office be such as to secure men who have had large experience and succeeded, who have shown capacity themselves to do the work they are to supervise and criticise. The respect with which the opinions of the British Lunacy Boards have been received at home and abroad is chiefly due to the fact that their active members have been men of this kind. I am aware that many experienced in the care of the insane have not thought this supervision practicable or desirable in this country, and there would undoubtedly be difficulty at first in securing the best men for the positions; but I believe that this feeling is changing, and that suitable men could be found, if the tenure of office were reasonably secure and the salary enough to fairly recompense good ability. When the magnitude of even the financial interests is considered, the salary of such an officer appears insignificant. No private corporation transacting so great a business would think of hesitating at it.

CARE OF THE FILTHY CLASSES OF INSANE.

BY STEPHEN SMITH, M.D.,

STATE COMMISSIONER OF LUNACY, OF NEW YORK CITY.

In all of the institutions for the insane in the State of New York there is a considerable number who are very properly classed as "filthy." They are found in largest numbers in the asylums for the chronic insane, in county asylums, and in the poorhouses. But, wherever they are found, they are a source of perpetual annoyance to attendants, and of disgust to the more intelligent and refined inmates. One filthy patient on a hall, or ward, will often require more of the time and work of the attendants than the remaining fifty. I have seen patients in the asylums of this State who were thoroughly bathed, and had a complete change of under-clothing, and two or three times of their external clothing, eighteen times in a single day. And this occurred in spite of constant watchfulness to anticipate their wants. The filthy constitute, therefore, a separate and independent class of insane, so peculiar and repulsive in their habits, and requiring such special care, that they should have suitable provision made for their accommodation and treatment.

During the past year, I have made a special examination of this class in the institutions for insane in the State, with a view to determine the kind of care which these helpless insane receive and what additional accommodations they require. In every institution, I have personally examined the individual patients pointed out as filthy, as to the cleanliness of their persons and clothing, and have opened and examined all of their beds with reference to the cleanliness of the bed-clothing and their freedom from foul odors. I have also made night inspections in all of the State asylums, and have made the operations of the night service in each a subject of special observation.

It is unnecessary, for the purposes which I have in view, to divide the filthy insane into grades according to their intelligence or their mental or physical condition. It is true that many insane persons are filthy at intervals, and then recover for a time; while others remain filthy during life, and are called the "habitually filthy." In either case, this special feature of their insanity demands that kind of care which will insure cleanliness; and during the period of re-

lapse there is no reason for not classifying and associating this class together — namely, the occasionally filthy with the habitually filthy — for the purposes of convenience in their care.

In the hospitals for the acute insane in the State of New York, the number of habitually filthy is small, and very variable. This is due to the fact that the chronic insane, as a rule, are early removed from these institutions to those devoted especially to that class. The filthy in the hospitals for the acute insane are usually found in the wards of the disturbed and violent, where there is always the greater number of attendants. In these wards, they occupy rooms or portions of the wards farthest removed from the other patients.

The care of these patients is all that can be desired. Each of these hospitals has a regular day and night service, so organized that the filthy are trained, if possible, to habits of personal care and cleanliness. They are not only promptly changed when found to be soiled; but, as far as practicable, their necessities are anticipated, and they are required to protect and care for themselves. At night, the attendants raise them at given fixed hours, and thus endeavor to form habits of cleanliness. The rule in those hospitals is that the night attendants must turn over to the day attendants all the filthy cases in a cleanly condition, and every infraction of the rule is at once reported. The result is that a soiled patient is rarely found in these hospitals, either at night or during the day; and, when found, the investigation shows, with rare exception, that the patient has but just become soiled.

The result of this extreme care is most happy. Large numbers of patients who fall into habits of uncleanness are restored to good and regular habits. Others, who would be made uncomfortable, and at night would be greatly disturbed, are rendered comparatively quiet, and sleep well. The wards are also free from the foul and repulsive odors so common in the dormitories of the filthy, where there is no organized system of care at night as well as day. There is also a great saving in the washing of clothes, and in their destruction by the effects of filth on the texture of the cloth.

In the State asylums for the chronic insane, the great mass of filthy cases necessarily congregate. Many of them enter these asylums thoroughly confirmed in habits of uncleanness, and are, therefore, already beyond the curative influences which care and discipline are likely to exert. In my early experience as visitor to these institutions there was no organized night service for the filthy, as in the hospitals for the acute insane. As a consequence, I had opportuni-

ties of observing the habits of the filthy insane, when there was no special night service for their care, and contrast them with the same class in hospitals for the acute insane, where the night service was as perfect as that of the day.

On entering the dormitories of the halls where the filthy were confined, at the rising hour of the morning, the sight was most repulsive, and the odors intolerably sickening. The day attendants at once began their task of placing their halls in order, preparatory to taking breakfast. It was a matter of astonishment to me that men and women attendants could be found who, for any wages, would undertake to perform such a disagreeable task. Some of the patients were literally wallowing in their own excrements. They had besmeared their beds, their heads and faces, and even the floors and walls of their rooms. In some instances, the patients resisted being bathed by fixing their limbs and bodies in such rigid positions that it required three or four attendants properly to wash them, and put on their clothes. When the patient was finally prepared to be dressed or returned to bed, the bed had to be more or less completely changed, the floors scrubbed, and the walls washed, if soiled. This was the regular morning work in many wards, the year through, and had to be performed before breakfast.

The effect was unfavorable in every respect. The patients were made uncomfortable during the night, and were thereby greatly disturbed. Those who could be trained to better habits, by careful attention to their wants, were neglected, and allowed to lapse into habits of uncleanness. The attendants were burdened in the morning hours with a most repulsive task, which could but disturb their digestion, and thus gradually impair health. The dormitories were foul with the disgusting odors which neither scrubbing, ventilation, nor disinfectants could wholly remove. The waste of bed-clothing and the night clothing of patients by washing was immense.

Within the past year or two, these two asylums have instituted each a night service for the care of the filthy; and now this class is turned over each morning to the day attendants, in the same cleanly condition in which they were received from the day attendants on the previous evening. A visit to the same wards now, whether during the night or in the early morning, gives the visitor an altogether different impression from that formerly made. As a rule, the patients are quiet and asleep at night. If one is found soiled, it is evident that the soiling has just occurred. There are no longer any of the offensive odors which characterized long-continued saturation with urine

and excrements. Attendants are themselves free from the contact with filth, and perform their duties cheerfully and without disgust and annoyance. The universal testimony of attendants who have witnessed the change, and who have taken part in carrying out the reform, is that the habits of the more intelligent are greatly improved; and many become clean, and some even scrupulously particular about being soiled. Many of the more demented have gradually impressed upon them habits of rising at given periods, which the attendants quickly recognize and improve so promptly as to prevent soiling. Finally, cleanliness is found to be powerfully promotive of sound sleep of all grades of insane classed as filthy. Those who were noisy much of the night now fall into a heavy sleep as soon as they are raised, or, if soiled, are cleaned, and have a change of clothes.

In the large county asylums of the State, as those of New York, the care of the filthy is reduced to a very perfect system. The night service is organized with the greatest attention to details; and, as a result, no patient is allowed to soil himself, if watchfulness can prevent it. The hospital for men on Ward's Island has large numbers of habitually filthy; and yet a visit to their dormitories shows a remarkable freedom from offensive odors, though these dormitories are poorly arranged for ventilation and cleanliness. The asylum for women, on Blackwell's Island, has a pavilion set apart for the filthy, and in that respect is in advance of any other hospital or asylum in the State. In this building, the habitually filthy are congregated; and the service is organized for their special care and treatment. The attendants are selected with special reference to their interest in their work; and here, for the first time, an attendant professed that she preferred to have charge of the filthy to any other class of the insane.

The asylums of other counties have, with rare exceptions, no night service for the filthy. As a consequence, this class are neglected at night; but, during the day, I have always found them clean, and their dormitories in good condition. In a very careful search through these institutions, I found but two soiled beds in the daytime; and these were left unchanged by the assistants of the matron, who did not regard them as sufficiently soiled to require a change. The rules enforcing cleanliness during the day are quite as stringent in the county as in the State asylums. Rubber sheets are used over the ticking. These are washed, and dried in the sun when practicable, whenever soiled; and I have never found them foul or filthy.

If the patient remove the rubber cloth, and soil the ticking or the straw, both are removed, the ticking washed, and the entire body of straw removed, unless the soiling is very slight, and can be thoroughly remedied by cleansing and the removal of a very little straw.

In the poorhouses, as a rule, no adequate measures are taken to protect the filthy from the consequences of their habits. They were usually found in the most deplorable condition. Neither the person, the body clothing, nor the beds receive any special attention.

It may be stated as a conclusion based on this investigation that the filthy classes of insane in this State in State asylums are under such special care as insures cleanliness of the person, clothing, and bedding. In the metropolitan county asylums, the care of this class is equally efficient. In other county asylums there is no night service designed to protect the filthy from the evil effects of their habits; but, in general, the day service is well organized, and both the patients and their dormitories are kept in good condition. In the poorhouses, as a rule, the filthy insane receive no special care, either day or night, and as a consequence have often been found in a most deplorable state of filthiness. In many instances, the stock on the farm were more carefully secured against filth than the insane.

In private asylums, the night service is usually well organized, and the filthy are well cared for. The number of this class is, however, small in these institutions; and those who are habitually filthy generally have means adequate to meet any special expenses required for their care.

Two suggestions occur to me as important, in the light of my investigation, with reference to the care of the filthy class of insane.

1. State asylums should have separate buildings constructed with special reference to the isolation and care of this class. In no asylum is it possible now to remove the filthy from that contact with the wards of the main building, or with other patients, that is desirable. Wherever they are grouped in a part of a hall, or in separate halls, they so contaminate the atmosphere, through the walls and floors, the beds and bedding, that the dormitories remain, in spite of cleaning, disinfection, and ventilation, so foul and offensive as to be quite uninhabitable by other patients. I have visited single sleeping-rooms of the filthy at mid-day, in summer, which, though scrupulously clean and fully exposed to the external air and strong sunlight, still had an extremely offensive atmosphere. The very presence of these inmates tends, therefore, permanently to damage wards, and render

them unfit for future occupation, unless walls and floors are frequently scraped, and thus comparatively renewed.

Every State asylum has ample grounds and appropriate sites for the construction of detached buildings for this class. These buildings need not be elaborate or expensive, but certain conditions and conveniences should be supplied. They might be one story in height, with a few single rooms for the more disturbed and an associated dormitory for the quiet. The walls and floors should be impermeable, and susceptible of being thoroughly washed and disinfected daily. There could be a wide veranda constructed completely around the building, where patients could sit or lie in the summer, and, when enclosed, could be so warmed as to be comfortable in winter. The facilities for bathing and cleansing the patients should be immediately at hand, and of the most approved kind. The service should be so organized as to be continuous, day and night, in the raising and bathing of patients.

While every State asylum should have its separate building for the filthy classes, the necessity of such provision in the State asylums for the chronic insane is imperative. There is no want of provision for the insane in this State that is to-day so urgent, and that should appeal with greater force to the legislature for suitable appropriations.

2. County asylums should organize, each, a night service for the filthy, and maintain it with well-qualified attendants. Already, this service has been instituted in some of the larger and better managed asylums of the counties, with great and immediate benefit to the inmates.

In regard to the poorhouses, it is sufficient to state that the filthy insane should never be sent to them, and when found in them should be removed to State asylums for the chronic insane.

INSANITY AND LUNACY LAWS.

ABSTRACT OF A PAPER BY DR. W. B. FLETCHER,
SUPERINTENDENT OF THE INDIANA INSANE ASYLUM.

Thirty-six years ago, it was estimated that in the State of Indiana there was one insane person to every thirteen hundred of the population. That proportion has increased to one in less than five hundred. With such an appalling fact before us, it suggests the questions: Are the causes of this increased tendency to mental disease real or apparent? What are the real causes, if they exist? What are the apparent causes? How may these causes be held in check or diminished?

The most notable increase of insanity is coincident with the introduction of railroads, promoting the influx of immigrants and giving us the same conditions which had before existed only along the seaboard. It has long been recognized that Europe has thrown into the United States, like noxious weeds, her useless pauper, deformed, blind, deaf, epileptic, and criminal classes; and here, nourished by an almost profligate charity, they have again taken root, and gained the strength of at least a superior virility. Heredity of mental and nervous disease can be traced through more than one-half the cases of insanity. It is a marked defect in our civilization that marriages may take place among the blind, deaf, mute, and insane. In the Indiana Hospital for the Insane, the same names occur year after year, fathers and mothers who have been there sending sons and daughters, and in two instances grandchildren. Several families are now represented by two and three members; and, in two instances, brothers became insane, and were admitted at the same time. This goes to show that our institutions are not only for treatment, but, as has been said, "nurseries for and manufactories of madness, reservoirs of lunacy, from which is issued from time to time a sufficient supply for perpetuating and extending the formidable disease."

The apparent increase of insanity is due in some degree to the improved means of preserving the lives of the chronic insane. They are now well fed, well clothed, and given all the conditions to preserve them to more than usual old age. Another apparent cause is the change of popular opinion regarding the treatment of lunacy. Fifty years ago, to be sent to a hospital for the insane was little less of a social disgrace than service in a penitentiary. Now, residence

in an institution is regarded with as little sense of shame as residence at the Hot Springs for rheumatism. Again, the man or woman who, fifty years ago, would have been simply regarded as peculiar, odd, or eccentric, is called insane, and is supposed to be susceptible to treatment. Many of the persons noted in history, who were not regarded as insane in their time, would now, if gathered together, immensely swell the statistics of lunacy.

The question of the increased use of alcoholic beverages and narcotics increasing insanity it is difficult to discuss. There are places where the proportion of drunkards to the thousand is on the decrease, but where insanity is on the increase. Among the 1,450 patients in the Indiana hospital, not more than a dozen can show drunkenness as an attributed cause; and it is as likely that the developed insanity was the cause of the loss of moral sense and will power which suggested the constant or periodic stimulation which made the drunkard as it was that drink caused the insanity. I may say the same of self-abuse in either sex. The abuse may be considered as a symptom of the disease rather than the cause of insanity. How much insanity may be traced indirectly to alcoholic poisoning it is yet more difficult to say. If the brain of the progenitor have been poisoned by alcohol or narcotics, it is not unlikely that induced disease of that organ would descend to the children. Observation upon but a few thousand patients convinces me that syphilitic disease of the cranium, membranes of the brain, and spinal cord, is a more frequent cause of mental disease and general paralysis than alcohol and narcotics; and its poison descends, perhaps, through more generations than that of any other disease. Scrofulous disease and insanity have also kept pace with one another, and there is undoubtedly an intimate relation between the two. As to education being a cause of insanity, the evidence is to the contrary, in Indiana. Over-study has in no instance, that I can trace, disturbed the equilibrium of the brain. The more learned we grow, the better organized is the mind. I believe an education would have prevented many a one from becoming insane. Many years ago, a large number of cases was recorded as made insane by religious excitement; but it is interesting to note that these causes are now rarely referred to. One writer has well said that more mad people become religious (using the word in its phenomenal sense) than religionists go mad. The so-called religious crank is not a crank because he is religious, neither did religion make him a crank.

Among the real causes of insanity that we may combat, then, are:

first, the emigration to our shores of weak-minded, diseased paupers from Europe; and, second, prohibiting the marriage of that class of persons who, we know, can but breed those mental and bodily defects which we spend millions to cure.

Good laws might do much; good teaching, more. The subject is left too much in the hands of the specialists. Let it be inculcated in the minds of the masses that insanity, consumption, venereal disease, etc., are almost sure to develop in the progeny. Physicians should be better qualified, also, in the detection, prevention, and management of mental disease, and more ready to discern between disagreeable eccentricity and insanity that requires hospital treatment. The readiness with which some of them recklessly and ignorantly sign papers for commitment of persons as insane is shown on the official records of various institutions. I would strongly recommend that there be a plan devised to appoint properly qualified boards of examiners, in each county or congressional district, to examine all cases of alleged insanity, by taking the testimony of the family physician, with that of other witnesses, and that said board should have no interest in the number of inquests held, but be paid by the State an annual compensation.

The means of admission into lunatic asylums should be made more difficult. Persons should not be cared for at public charge, who have the means to maintain them. To furnish a home for all adjudged insane, free of expense, is to offer a premium on the cultivation of the disease, besides robbing the people of that feeling of personal pride and honor which should protect them from such self-degradation. The laws pertaining to the commitment of persons alleged insane should be carefully revised in most of the States. A fair trial should be accorded such. They should be brought before a jury, or a jury before them, and have the cause of their arraignment fully explained; and no deception should be practised. I cannot conceive of any possible injury to an insane person from being informed of all the facts in the case, and I know of much injury to patients who were hoodwinked into hospitals by most cruel deception. There should be some statutory regulation as to the degree of aberration of mind justifying detention. The peevishness of adolescence, the petulance of old age, should never be regarded as indications for removal from home and freedom to a hospital.

While speaking of removal to the hospital, I desire in unqualified terms to condemn the cruel, cowardly, and inhuman practice of having women who are adjudged insane arrested by a sheriff, who may take two or three men along to convey the unfortunate con-

demned a journey of perhaps one or two days' duration, as is the custom in many of the States. I have seen many a woman, whose main symptom of insanity was timidity, brought to the hospital a raving maniac, ready to commit suicide because of the forced degradation. Many of these had never been from home, and knew none of the conveniences of cars or hotels; and, having only the company of one or two strange men, they were sad spectacles of man's neglect and cupidity. The removal of insane women should be by well-trained female attendants.

Finally, I believe the number of insane may be reduced by improved methods of treatment. The day when hospitals were mere keeps for lunatics, and when mechanical restraints were largely used, has passed by. The value of teaching as of paramount value in the treatment of many forms of insanity is now better understood. Kindergartens are being established, well-arranged schools for the more advanced, and work-shops for various kinds of manual labor are being introduced, and should meet with encouragement. The greatest drawback to the treatment of insane persons is the difficulty of obtaining well-qualified attendants. In many States, the law grants to the boards of trustees the power to limit the superintendent in the number of attendants, fixing their wages, and sometimes even their selection. This leads to the employment of what I would term a deciduous class of attendants, who are shed once or twice a year. They seek the place because they are young, or because they are old, or until they can get something else to do, or last, but most commonly, because they or their friends are of great value to the party in power.

Of all curses that can be thrust upon an institution for the insane, the chief is the employé whose sole qualification is his politics. I know of no one thing which this Conference could do that would so largely aid in the treatment of the insane as the encouragement of the establishment of a national school for the training of attendants who have taken as a life vocation the care of the insane. It is a profession of itself, and should demand a high degree of intellect and cultivation, and should be paid for accordingly. I would strongly recommend the substitution of a healthy, middle-aged man and his wife for the young male attendants upon the men's wards. They have a good effect in adding interest, kindness, and homelike comfort to the place. I also warmly recommend female physicians in all wards for women.

The abolition of beer, wine, and alcoholic beverages I regard as desirable; for, like mechanical restraints, they are far more apt to be abused than to be used to any good purpose.

IV.

Provision for Idiots.

REPORT OF STANDING COMMITTEE.

BY ISAAC N. KERLIN, M.D.

The report of your Standing Committee on Provision for Idiotic and Feeble-minded Persons, presented at the last Conference, discussed the numbers and distribution of this class, the degrees and grades of idiocy, their susceptibility to improvement, and also the obligation of society to its defective members. Considerable space was given to the plans and organization of institutions for these wards of a commonwealth.

All that we shall aim to do on this occasion is to make a statement of the nature and amount of relief which the several States have made for the care of these idiotic and feeble-minded persons, from which we would be glad in a future Conference to proceed to other branches of this subject.

Massachusetts.—In this State were established in the same year, 1848, a private institution at Barre, now under the superintendence of Dr. and Mrs. Brown, and a State institution at South Boston.

The first legislation was on Jan. 22, 1846, when a committee of the House of Representatives was ordered to "consider the expediency of appointing commissioners to inquire into the condition of idiots in the Commonwealth, to ascertain their number and whether anything can be done for their relief." A board of commissioners was appointed, of which Dr. S. G. Howe was chairman; and, on the report, the legislature appropriated \$2,500 for an experimental school. This act founded the first State institution in America. The report has been widely spread through America and Europe, and furnishes to-day the basis of cyclopædic literature on this topic.

The total expenditure for buildings from the commencement has been \$52,000, and, for support, \$455,625.79. The last legislature

appropriated \$15,000, from which \$3.25 per week may be drawn for each inmate supported by the State. This would be bankruptcy to the institution, were it not for the increased rates derived from private patients, and from neighboring States for the support of their children at South Boston.

The buildings are of frame, closely built on an acre of ground, and too suggestive of a serious liability to fire, and the close contact of a crowding neighborhood, to please the critical visitor. But the school-rooms and dormitories are spacious, airy, and healthful, looking out upon the beautiful bay. We naturally turn to the old Commonwealth for a lead in all reformatory and social movements; but, in the organization of institutions for the feeble-minded, she has been distanced by several other States, until at last the trustees' report for 1881 calls up the question of enlarging the "operations of the school, so that it shall embrace not only the improvable, but the unimprovable." This, together with its change of name from "The Massachusetts School for Idiotic and Feeble-minded Youth" to "Massachusetts School for the Feeble-minded," indicates a stir of vigor, from which the best results may spring.

A farm has been purchased at Medfield, twenty miles from Boston, where twenty boys are domiciled in the old farm-house. This experiment has resulted satisfactorily.

The total number now under care is 160; 140 at the school and 20 at the Medfield farm. The practical sense of this earliest institution has guided it toward the industrial training of its inmates, with results that are gratifying. A late report, discussing true methods of education, goes on to show how the blending of shades in the construction of braided mats, and the making of brooms, are in the highest sense intellectual training, and, describing this, says: "The work-shop where several such industries are carried on provides occupation and relief from the depressing ennui of idleness, and at the same time fosters physical development and intellectual growth. It is a work-shop, a gymnasium, a kindergarten, and a school-room." Further on, the report says, "The conclusion was long ago reached that industrial training should be the chief effort, although the school-room must be retained as tributary to this object."

Finally, for Massachusetts, while she has the proud distinction of being in the van of this as of all other noble movements, she has the sad mortification of having made through the State papers of a governor a weak and misleading attack on the expediency of training idiotic and feeble-minded children,—a paper which will be quoted

by every ignorant legislator who would retard his State in well-doing, on the plea of economy.

New York.—Legislation in this State was first attempted in 1846. A bill was introduced in the Senate and passed, but failed in the Assembly. It was renewed in 1847, passed the Senate a second time, and again failed in the Assembly. It was recommended in the annual messages of the governor in the years 1849, 1850, and 1851; but nothing came of it until the latter year, when the first legislation was effected by the passage of an act entitled "An Act to establish an asylum for idiots and making an appropriation therefor." The second section of the act gave the trustees power to "procure a suitable building for the education of such idiots as may be selected," and "to employ all necessary teachers," etc., thereby indicating the educational purposes of the asylum. The by-laws adopted by the board of trustees further declared that "the design and objects of the asylum are not of a custodial character, but to furnish the means of education to that portion of the youths of the State not provided for in any other of its educational institutions." They also permitted the reception of other cases, "with the advice and consent of the executive committee."

Thus, it appears that the New York institution was founded as a branch of the general educational system of the State, under the impulse to give to every child its measure of teaching,—special teaching, if special inaptitudes demanded it. After twenty-seven years of valuable work, its superintendent, Dr. H. B. Wilbur, reports to the State: "It has always been supposed by the board of trustees of this asylum that the State would ultimately make some provision for the unteachable and adult idiots in a proper custodial institution, leaving that at Syracuse to fulfil its functions as an institution for educational and training purposes. They have repeatedly urged the attention of the legislature to this subject. Whenever this is done, those who had finished a course of training here, and had no homes to go to, could take their places in it there under intelligent direction, by simple forms of occupation and assistance in the care of the young and helpless cases of idiocy, doing more or less toward the cost of their maintenance. Certainly, getting them away from associations with ordinary paupers, and under a system of intelligent direction, need not increase the cost of their maintenance." The motives and ends of the establishment of a custodial institution at Newark, N.Y., are thus described by Dr. Wilbur, in 1880:—

Some eighteen months ago, Mrs. Lowell, a member of the Board of State Charities, in her official visitations to the county poorhouses, was shocked to find

more or less imbecile and idiotic females the mothers of illegitimate children. She made a report calling public attention to the matter, secured the appointment of a committee of the Board of State Charities to meet a committee of the trustees of the asylum for idiots, to consult as to the best remedy for such evil in the future.

Two of these joint meetings were held, and a plan was decided upon. It was to ask for an appropriation from the legislature, then in session, to open an experimental asylum, in buildings leased for the purpose, to determine two points: first, if such an asylum were a public want; and, secondly, if the end desired could be accomplished without materially increasing the cost of maintenance and care of those for whom it was designed. It will be readily seen that the cost of maintenance in such an establishment is a more important one than in the case of the educational institutions. In the one case, it is a life-long provision for support and care. In the other, certain additional expenditure is warranted for a limited period in the case of the pupils, in view of the prospective diminution of the ultimate cost of their care and maintenance.

This branch was to be, in a measure, a training-school for girls. The various household occupations were to be done, as far as possible, by the inmates, for economy's sake. The laundry, therefore, and the bakery, and the kitchen, and the other domestic offices, as well as the associated dormitories, must be of ample size.

Then, to bring together a family of more than a hundred in a single building, especially when more or less of them are of only moderately vigorous bodily powers, and more or less careless in their personal habits, demands certain sanitary precautions. The heating apparatus and the arrangements for ventilation must be effective. The water supply must not only be adequate for ordinary domestic uses, but carried where it will be available for bathing and kindred purpose.

The site must be accessible, healthy, and capable of good drainage.

So specifically did Dr. Wilbur conceive the plans for a custodial department, the fruition of which he has not lived to see.

The parent institution owns a farm at Fairmount, where the labor of 45 adult males contributes to the general support. The total capacity of these State properties is at present about 650. The custodial department was managed as a branch of the State institution at Syracuse, until the legislation of the last winter, which made it an independent corporation. The total amount of appropriations for land and buildings since the commencement is \$223,500. The amount of appropriations for maintenance from commencement is \$1,106,804.56. Total amount of appropriations last winter, inclusive of buildings, \$23,500, was \$116,500.

Besides the State institution at Syracuse, the city of New York has had on Randall's Island a special department for its idiotic and feeble-minded children, organized with its two branches,—a school for those who are teachable and a home for the lower grades.

The Seguin Psychological School in New York City commemorates the name of the late beloved Frenchman, whose early study at

Bicetre attracted the attention of American philanthropists, and who is in reality the father of the work in our country.

Pennsylvania.—The first legislation in this State was that which established on April 7, 1853, under James B. Richards, the Pennsylvania Training School at Germantown, now at Elwyn, in Delaware County. The State has expended since that date: for buildings, \$197,750; and for maintenance, \$525,748.57. In addition to this, private benevolence has bestowed upon it sums nearly equal, a portion of which is invested in an endowment fund which now amounts to \$80,000, on which beneficiaries can be placed. The term for which State beneficiaries can be admitted is seven years.

The institution consists of two separate blocks of stone buildings, one-third of a mile apart, located on one hundred and fifty acres of ground, and connected by a narrow gauge railway. The original buildings are devoted to the educational and training departments; while those more remote are homes for the lower grades,—the epileptics, paralytics, etc.,—and are schools only so far as they give an industrial training and a living to a number of cases who, without such means, would necessarily be dismissed from the institution. The per capita cost in the educational department for 1884 was \$217; in the asylum department, \$160. During the last few years, close attention has been given to the development of certain industries. A late report speaks as follows:—

“The assessed value of our children's work is about \$4,000 per annum. Many of those who perform it are growing into adult life. They are retained in the institution, because unfit to be sent into the general community. Many of them are orphans; and all of them would lead saddened lives either in the county houses or elsewhere, if discharged. Four thousand dollars in wage labor annually saved permits the institution to retain about thirty inmates on the non-paying list; that is, thirty *free* patients are actually supported by the saving in the service, as above detailed.

“Still another comment may be made, which is but the repetition of what has often been said. For the largest number of those physically able, employment should be assigned according to their capacity, not for the value of the work itself, but for its value to the child. We are coming more and more to the conviction that our school occupation and training should be in the line of making the child useful, even if it be only in the lesser details of domestic life. It is hard to convince the parents that old forms of letters and numbers do not constitute an education for an imbecile child, even when they may be acquired. The best end attained in his training is, in reality, to induce in him the simplest conformity to the habits and actions of normal people,—that he speak seldom, that he repress his emotion, that he move willingly and easily,—so that he shall become an unserved member of the common population, if thrown into it, or, if retained under institution regulation, that his cost and care shall be as moderate as possible.

This is the true aim, and it is certainly best taken by the use of hand-training occupations as early as possible and always."

The superintendent, under the heading of "A Peculiar Group and an Unpleasant Fact," makes the following statement: "It is a mournful conclusion that has been reached after twenty years' experience, that in every institution of this kind, and probably to a far greater extent in our refuges and charity schools, there exists a small class of children to whom the offices of a school-room should not be applied. These are the so-called moral imbeciles, or juvenile insane, who are often precocious in their ability to receive instruction, but whose moral infirmity is radical and incurable. The early detection of the classes is not difficult. They should be subjects for life-long detention. Their existence can be made happy and useful; and they will train into comparative docility and harmlessness, if kept under a uniform, temperate, and positive restriction. The school-room fosters the ill we would cure. In teaching them to write, we give them an illimitable power of mischief. In educating them at all, except to physical labor, we are adding to their armament of deception and misdemeanor."

The capacity of the institution is as follows: educational department, 300; asylum department, 200; present population, 495.

Ohio.—The first legislative enactment calling into existence its Institution for Feeble-minded Youth is dated April 17, 1857. The State of Ohio has committed herself in the most emphatic manner to the best care of her feeble-minded wards, and has extended these benefits more generously than any other commonwealth.

Twenty-four years had thoroughly developed the usefulness of this institution, when, on the 18th of November, 1881, the whole of the main and central buildings was swept away by fire, and damage done to its rear buildings. No lives were lost. Indeed, not a child was injured,—a result to be attributed to the courage and heroism of officers and employes, who met the disaster with the coolness and discipline which accomplished, first, the safe removal of six hundred children, and then the saving of much of the property of the institution, including about two-thirds of the buildings. This was done at the sacrifice of everything owned by the devoted employes. The trials which followed were manifold and severe. Perhaps no trouble weighed more heavily upon the management than an effort to prevent the reconstruction of the building as an educational institution for feeble-minded children. The issue thus forced upon it was squarely met and tried before a new legislature, prejudiced by irresponsible and misinformed correspondents of newspapers. The whole matter of the relation of this class of children to society, and the duty of society to them, was gone over from the beginning. The result was most happy. The State took no backward step, but finally appropriated \$400,000 for the restoration of the destroyed buildings,

There is now at Columbus the best built and best appointed institution in the world, devoted to the care of these unfortunates.

The State of Ohio has spent over \$650,000 on buildings, and has supported over six hundred children annually, at an aggregate cost, since the beginning, of nearly \$1,200,000.

The schools are thoroughly adapted to the younger children, while its industrial department is admirably sustained. Last year, the total number of days' work done by the boys amounted to 20,412. They laid over 29,000 square feet of concrete walk, made 450 pairs of shoes, and repaired 948 pairs of shoes and boots. The general work was clearance of debris of the destroyed buildings, grading, sodding, ditching, laying sewer pipes, excavating cellars, with general work on farm and in the vegetable gardens, etc. The management is fully committed to the importance of a custodial department. A recent report says: "The care of the friendless and helpless of adult age has always been the subject of solicitude and of repeated and urgent recommendation. The organization of the institution only contemplated the reception and training of children under the age of fifteen years, and construction of buildings was adapted to this class only."

The fact of the existence of an older outside class, and of some now in the institution, who will require permanent care, is recognized, and annually presented to the legislature. The plan is therefore presented of securing a large and fertile tract of land, upon which family buildings can be constructed with economy, and the labor performed by those enjoying the shelter. The training and industrial capacity of many will fit them for assistance in the care and maintenance of the more unfortunate and older of their class, who have not enjoyed the same advantages, or who may not possess the same capacity for development. The cost of each person to be accommodated need not exceed \$300 for construction.

The management believes that one thousand acres of fertile ground could be kept in remunerative tillage by the inmates.

Connecticut.—The work commenced in this State by the appointment, in 1855, of a board of commissioners, "to ascertain as accurately as possible the statistics of the idiotic population of the State, to visit the institutions already organized in adjoining States, and to ascertain such facts as might enable them to report to the next General Assembly plans for the organization of a school for idiots, should such a measure be deemed advisable."

Their first embarrassment grew out of the "settled conviction of a

large majority of citizens of the Commonwealth that idiots were a class so utterly helpless that it was a waste of time even to collect any statistics concerning them." The details of the commissioners' report are valuable reading to-day. Families were found, as may be found to-day, in which parents and children were alike imbecile.

In one instance, where a female pauper idiot lived in one town, the town authorities hired an idiot, belonging to another town and not then a pauper, to marry her; and the result has been that the town to which he belonged has for many years been obliged to support the pair and three idiot children.

The conclusion forced upon the minds of these commissioners was "that, in the present condition of idiots in the State, there is no good reason to hope for their improvement. Not over one in a hundred can be expected, in their present mode of life, to change, except to plunge into deeper degradation."

The Connecticut institution is beautifully situated on a large farm at Lakeville. The buildings are of frame, commodious and well adapted to the purpose. There are 100 inmates, 56 of whom are supported by the State at an expense last year of \$7,207.53. The superintendent says: "There are in this State some hundreds of adult imbeciles who are not properly entitled to educational privileges, because, by reason of age and other causes, they are not susceptible of educational improvement. These are scattered in families, almshouses, and, in some instances perhaps, in jails. The worst evils are seen to follow this indiscriminate treatment. In most of the town poorhouses, the sexes are not, and cannot well be, kept separate. This is greatly to be regretted, particularly in the case of young girls. A neighboring town can furnish several examples of paupers, the illegitimate children of imbecile paupers.

"We believe that the State has not done its whole duty in placing a limited number of imbeciles in a training school. We think that the State should take into its own custody at least all such as are now in the poorhouses of the various towns, and provide for them a home where the sexes shall be kept apart."

Kentucky.—A charter was granted for the Kentucky institution on Feb. 11, 1860. The State had for many years appropriated considerable sums for the home relief of idiotic children, providing for an allowance of \$50 per annum to each needy family in which a child of this class was set.

The institution is beautifully located on sixty-five acres of high meadow and woodland, in the environs of the State capital, the

whole costing the State \$26,500. The original buildings have been added to by spacious and well-appointed structures, at a total cost of \$95,000. The total number cared for is 175. The State appropriates \$150 per capita, and makes additional appropriations for salaries and wages, amounting last year to \$7,500. For the relief of the great numbers still unprovided for, the management urges the location of a custodial branch on the grounds of the present institution.

The value to the pupils and the saving to the institution by a thorough system of industrial training is nowhere better illustrated than at Frankfort, where the single job, accomplished by the boys, of removing from the front and sides of the buildings great embankments of earth, was a saving to the State of \$1,200. Several are being taught carpentering and joining; and, at the late exposition at New Orleans, a creditable display of sash and doors, shoes, brooms, and mattresses was made by this institution.

The superintendent discourages the introduction of labor-saving machinery, and permits the girls to show with honest pride their trained deftness in the laundry and sewing-room. The industrial department is stated by the superintendent to be no longer an expense to the State. Last year, of the dismissals, four girls were sent to good homes as capable domestics, and one boy engaged at wages as a teamster, contributing to the support of his mother. More land is asked for. Twenty acres adjacent to the State grounds are likely to be annexed for gardening purposes.

Illinois.—Under the corporate title of the Experimental School for Idiots and Feeble-minded Children, as an adjunct of the Deaf-mute Institution at Jacksonville, the legislature of Illinois first recognized the claims of this class. Not only through liberal appropriations, but by a comprehensive census, did this State manifest an unusual and intelligent interest, which has been maintained with steadiness.

The appropriations for buildings and grounds at Lincoln amount to a little over \$250,000, while those for support from the commencement amount to \$608,000. The average number of inmates exceeds three hundred and twenty-five. The State allows annually \$200 per capita. The schools are in admirable condition, and the physical training broadened by increasing attention to industries.

There are but forty acres attached to the present buildings. Forty acres adjoining the premises owned by the State are likely to be acquired, on which the labor of the large boys can be economically placed. The report of the superintendent contains an interesting

statement of what was done with eight and one-half acres of rented ground, and is here appended:—

RENTED GROUND IN ACCOUNT WITH INSTITUTION.

<i>Dr.</i>	<i>Cr.</i>
To amount paid for seed, \$61.31	By 128 $\frac{3}{4}$ bushels onions, at .65, \$83.68
Amount paid for labor, including	733 bushels Irish potatoes, at .25, 183.25
team, 79.31	213 $\frac{1}{4}$ bushels sweet potatoes, at .70, 149.27
Rent of land, 60.50	23 bushels beans, at .80, 18.40
Total, \$201.12	Total, \$434.60
	Balance in favor of the land, \$233.48
	Net profit per acre, 27.46

Says the superintendent:—

In taking into consideration the result of this experiment, due regard should be had, not only to the actual showing in dollars and cents, but also to the benefit which has been received by the inmates of the institution engaged in the work. Our boys seem to be encouraged with the result of their work, and take honest pride in having raised their own vegetables.

The practical directors of the Illinois institution, in their report for 1884, call for further extensions in the following language: "Believing that the State of Illinois should be second to no other in its care for the unfortunate, we would call your attention to those for whom there is now no provision (we mean the cases of idiocy classed as custodial). A provision for this class would not only relieve an immense amount of suffering, but would afford a place of safety and a life of usefulness to a number of the older inmates of the institution without homes, who would assist in the care of helpless children, and thereby relieve the State of a portion of the cost of maintenance."

Iowa.—Of all the States in which special provision has been made for the education of feeble-minded children, Iowa has most rapidly developed her work. The legislature, in the spring of 1876, provided "for the organization and support of an asylum at Glenwood, in Mills County," the object of which is defined to be their "care, support, training, and instruction." The western branch of the Iowa Soldiers' Orphans' Home had been vacated, and formed the nidus of her present fully developed institution. We cannot recommend a surer cure for those who are sceptical in regard to this work than an examination of this institution, now less than ten years old. It was founded in faith, with the broadest perceptions of State duty and

State capacity, its first president thus appealing to his governor and the General Assembly : —

We believe the question of success beyond dispute, as is that of necessity for such an institution ; and we trust that you, as representatives of an intelligent constituency, will most cheerfully grant this infant aylum such aid as will place its future success and prosperity beyond the possibility of failure, and thus be the means of happiness and consolation to as many sorrowing homes and hearts as either of the other charitable institutions of which our citizens are so justly proud.

Begun so auspiciously, it has had the liberal and constant support of the Commonwealth, receiving appropriations : for land and buildings, \$150,000 ; for support and repairs, \$193,894.

A cottage system of extension has been satisfactorily adopted at Glenwood, providing for the judicious separation of the sexes, and securing some conformity to family regulations and influences.

There are a shoe-shop and a broom-shop in successful operation. From ten to twelve boys are becoming good gardeners, and much of the sewing and laundrying is accomplished by the girls. The institution now accommodates 220, and enlargements are in progress that will increase the capacity to 350. The superintendent says : " We have much cause for encouragement. Our State no longer looks upon the work as an experiment. The people of Iowa, which as a State is so fast taking rank with the foremost States in wealth, will not allow so foul a blot on her name as that she should be neglectful of her duty in caring for this, the most pitiable and deserving of God's creatures."

Minnesota.—The Minnesota Training School for Imbeciles and Idiots, organized in 1879 by the late Dr. H. M. Knight of Connecticut, has at once taken an honorable position among the charities of that State. A building well adapted to its needs was provided by the State at a cost of \$45,000.

The total current expense for six years amounts to \$48,921. Number of inmates, 85. The legislature of last winter appropriated \$30,000 for an adjacent building for custodial cases.

Indiana.—The legislature of this State first appropriated for feeble-minded children, in the year 1879, the sum of \$2,000 to prepare a building on grounds already occupied by the Soldiers' Orphans' Home. The trustees in their consolidated capacity found it necessary to add a substantial wing to their existing buildings, at a cost of \$11,000, which delayed the thorough opening of the department for the feeble-minded until 1880. The legislature of 1881 appropriated

\$10,000 for the maintenance, increasing it in 1884, so that the number of feeble-minded children cared for at this date is 90.

The continued union of two diverse institutions, the one soldiers' orphans and the other for feeble-minded children, under the same roof and management, should be dissolved as soon as possible.

Kansas.—A State institution was established in Kansas by the legislature of 1880-81, opening at Leavenworth in September, 1881, where it has maintained about thirty children, at an expense to the State of \$7,500 per annum, which includes many repairs on the old buildings, furnishing, etc. The aggregate amount thus far expended is \$24,685.57. The last legislature directed the removal of this young institution to Winfield, Cowley County, where buildings adapted to the purpose will be erected on a farm of 160 acres.

A case of samples of the work of the Kansas children, in scroll-sawing, embroidery, writing, sewing, and knitting, was entered at the Great Fair held last year at Bismarck, Ia., and accomplished much in informing the public in regard to the possibilities of these children.

California.—On the 30th of July, 1883, an audience, consisting largely of benevolent ladies, assembled at the Palace Hotel, San Francisco, and perfected the organization of the California Association for the Care and Training of Feeble-minded Children. Its objects are defined to be "to found an institution for the care and training of feeble-minded children; that the admission fee for members of the Association be \$5, and for life members \$100, and \$500 for patron or honorary life members."

The Association rented, under bonded conditions, the property known as the White Sulphur Springs, in Solano County, consisting of 160 acres of the very best land, with large main buildings considerably out of repair, but with an abundance of water and pleasing attractions, and opened their institution on the 22d of May, 1884. The legislature of last winter adopted this enterprise as a State charity, appropriating \$20,000 for maintenance for two years, and the additional sum of \$25,000 for the purchase of the site already referred to.

Nebraska.—In March last, the legislature of Nebraska by a vote in the House of 69 yeas and 25 nays, in the Senate of 25 yeas and 5 nays, made the first recognition of the existence and claims of idiotic children, appropriating \$50,000 for buildings, and a levy of one-eighth for support, or about \$35,000 for the next two years. Beatrice has been chosen as its location; and with the characteristic

zeal and thrift of this State, which baptizes each second year of its amazing growth with the foundation of a charity, we shall soon have a flourishing institution at this outpost of our extending civilization.

Our report shows that thirteen States of our Union thus far have so committed themselves to this great work as to establish State institutions on as liberal footing as those for any other of the specially defective or diseased.

Other States have, by special legislation, authorized their governors to appoint State beneficiaries to the institutions of adjacent States. These are known as New Jersey, providing most liberally for about seventy-five children in the Pennsylvania and Connecticut institutions; Delaware, six children in the Pennsylvania institution; Maine, Rhode Island, and Georgia send children to the Massachusetts School, making in all twenty States on whose statute books these saving acts appear.

But, further, the plea of the idiotic child for life and recognition has been heard in the halls of our National Congress; and the noblest exponent of our greatness — the Senate of the United States — has passed upon the duty of strength to weakness, by legislating for the support of six little children at the Pennsylvania Institution for Feeble-minded Children.

For the composition of this report, our committee addressed the governors of all the States and Territories in which no institutions had been established, acquainting each with the number of feeble-minded and idiotic children reported by the last census as resident in his State. Courteous replies are received from all who were addressed. Many of them are of deep interest, but they must remain for a future occasion.

We had hoped to see Michigan enrolled in the list of progressive States; but the following extracts from a letter of Witter J. Baxter, secretary of the Board of Charities and Corrections, explain the situation: —

For several successive sessions, the earnest and persistent efforts of our board to secure such action have been unsuccessful. At present, large numbers of this class, varying in intelligence all the way from those only a little too dull to be admitted to the State public school to those seemingly possessed of no spark of intelligence, are in our county poorhouses, with no provision for culture or training of any kind, — miserable and pitiable objects, a disturbing and degrading element in the poorhouses, and of necessity permanent paupers and burdens on the community. From the fact that the facilities for separation and classification in the poorhouses are very imperfect, there is a constant danger — nay, almost a cer-

tainty—that, from natural causes, this class of unfortunates will be increased and perpetuated.

The action of our legislature in refusing to make provision for this class of unfortunates and dependants is entirely at variance with the general course of legislation in this State.

If all questions of humanity and the duty a State is under to make provision for its dependent classes, especially those who, by reason of their infirmity, are least able to make themselves heard, were put aside, it would seem that even the lower motives of self-interest and self-protection—the saving of expense in the support of the poor and the limiting, so far as may be, the natural increase of the idiotic and the feeble-minded—would lead to the establishment of State provision for this class of dependants.

The causes which led to the passing over for the present of this important measure are too numerous and varied to be given in a letter. Among the more plausible reasons given were the large prospective appropriations; for, while but a small appropriation was asked of the present legislature, that a small asylum for the care of a specified class of feeble-minded might be tried as an experiment, it was urged that, once established, a door would be opened, and large yearly appropriations would be asked, and probably granted, and so the burden of taxation increased.

Some, too, who, from the positions they occupy, would be supposed to have larger and juster views, were disposed to sneer at the advocates of State provision for the idiotic and feeble-minded as visionary and sentimental enthusiasts. The public press of the State, almost without exception, spoke disparagingly of the project; and a daily paper of the largest circulation of any in the State published, with approval of the sentiments expressed, an interview of its reporter with a leading member of the legislature, chairman of the committee to whom the bill for the establishment of an asylum for the idiotic and feeble-minded was referred, and who reported against the bill, in which the member is represented as giving as one of his reasons for endeavoring to secure a repeal of the law establishing the Board of Corrections and Charities, and thus to abolish the board, that “the board was even trying to secure the establishment of an institution for idiots,” as though that were sufficient reason for abolishing the board.

I confess that my feelings of State pride in Michigan and its institutions, fostered by long residence and its generally advanced position in all educational, charitable, and reformatory measures, were deeply hurt and humiliated.

I cannot believe that to-morrow will be as to-day, that the next legislature will be as the present, but I have an abiding trust that these hitherto neglected and most helpless of all public dependants will yet receive proper State instruction, training, and custodial care and provision.

Respectfully yours,

WITTER J. BAXTER, *Secretary.*

Allow us a few minutes for summing up the work already done, and to leave with you some of the prophecies which it kindles.

Who can say with whom this mighty movement in America originated? We reverently call the names: for Europe, Itard, Seguin, Guggenbuhl, and Saegert; for America, Samuel George

Howe, Hervey B. Wilbur, his sainted wife, Anna Wilbur, and the one survivor, James B. Richards.

But, anticipating all these, there must have been, away back in the ages, in secret places, stricken mothers coaxing out the tangled senses of these sad children, and anticipating all our mechanical and wholesale methods, we read of a devoted monk, far back in the sixteenth century, collecting about him a dozen of these innocents, relieving the monastic seclusion with his blessed deeds of devotion to these broken bodies and darkened minds.

But the scattered and loving emotions of centuries, leavened with practical Christianity, are gathering within the direction of organized charity and State legislation; and to these latest and safest guardians we commit a grand work. What is it?

The recognition by twenty commonwealths of this Union that the idiotic or feeble-minded child is human; that, without exception, under rightly directed influences, he may be lifted to a higher grade; that he has an inalienable right to these helpful influences; that, if the common forms of education are inapplicable to him, special means shall be provided.

The institution of to-day, or the training school of the past thirty years, may not be the best provision for the next century. The whole period thus far has been experimental; and, like all plans for the performance of any human interest, the first outlay has been large, and the results, perhaps, not up to over-sanguine expectations. It will always cost heavily in any commonwealth to organize right-doing toward its defective classes. The object of this report is fairly to represent the truth on this critical point. But he who hinders legislation because of the temporary severity of the tax has not computed the problem in simple proportion of one neglected "gutter girl" like Ada Juke, nor comprehended the pernicious progression of sin and defect, unchecked or uncared for.

But what are the returns to a State for these large expenditures? First, the withdrawal from a community of a most disturbing and distracting element. An impervious legislator refused his vote to a bill appropriating moneys to an extension of one of our institutions, asserting that his "town and county had no interest in this thing"; but, when discovering that a little idiot boy, of violent and destructive habits, who had once lived near him, the terror of his own and his neighbors' children, was at that moment a resident of the distant institution, he as impulsively changed his vote, declaring that his people would sustain him when they knew the facts. Hundreds of sorrow-

ful homes, with thousands of susceptible children, are shadowed with the presence of these imbeciles, where a State has made no special provision for the latter; and, independent of hereditary conditions, fewer mothers of idiotic progeny would be found in your insane hospitals, had they been relieved from the overtax of caring for their own unfortunates. The wear and tear of an excitable idiot baby of from two to ten years has wrecked many a family, and sent others down to pauperism.

From another point of view, who can estimate the gain to thrift in those social benefits arising from the culture of the sympathies of a people, as engrossed in the annual appropriations of a wealthy commonwealth? Indeed, as a familiar writer has said, in language at strange variance with his speculations, "the maintenance of the species can be secured only by the parental care adjusted to the needs consequent on imperfection."

But there are certain higher relations which this work sustains to the general progress of the State, and which contribute to its prosperity. The gathering of these defectives into organized institutions for training has already affected our views concerning certain principles of education and physical training; and the sense-training, or physiological education of Seguin, gets its inspiration from the successes of our humble schools for feeble-minded children, and may be doing as much for the general advancement of correct principles, as your colleges at the other end of the scale. And, as the corollary of this, the scientist is not without reasonable hope of finding in the closer study of arrested development the true indications of cerebral physiology and localization. As institutions become founded and the real study of mental defect becomes possible, the contributions to valuable knowledge from this quarter must be invaluable. Then again, it is here that we may examine most intelligently and successfully the principles of heredity and their application to social science. Who can doubt that from this direction will yet come those guiding lines which will turn the people aside from errors of living, falsities of believing, and the indiscriminate license of marriage,—all of which are generating the army of defectives enrolled on your last census? But, last and always first, as "righteousness exalteth a nation," so a State is ennobled and its place in the ranks of civilization known by what the great and strong have done for the weak and least.

The visitor to the great Exposition of 1876 paused before the exhibit of far-off Australia, and was amazed at its evidences of

industrial development; but, when discovering reports and photographs of its institution for feeble-minded children, he knew just where to put the distant star in the sublime progression of this nineteenth century.

The future of this work contemplates far more than the gathering into training schools of a few hundred imperfect children. Despite the false political philosophy which comes to us from Great Britain, and despite the hardness of heart and selfishness that sadly mark our higher culture, the outcome of this philanthropic movement will establish the dependence of the defective classes, at least, on the strong arm of a paternal government. Certain definitions of law and certain dogmas of the sects will equally undergo revision. The correlation of idiocy, insanity, pauperism, and crime will be understood, as it is not now. There will be fewer almshouses, but more workhouses. Jails, criminal courts, and grog-shops will correspondingly decrease; and here and there, scattered over the country, may be "villages of the simple," made up of the warped, twisted, and incorrigible, happily contributing to their own and the support of those more lowly,— "cities of refuge," in truth; havens in which all shall live contentedly, because no longer misunderstood nor taxed with exactions beyond their mental or moral capacity. They "shall go out no more" and "they shall neither marry nor be given in marriage" in those havens dedicated to incompetency.

THE EDUCATION OF THE FEEBLE-MINDED.

AN ADDRESS BY JAMES B. RICHARDS.

How are we to reach these unfortunate innocents? Can they be taught by the ordinary methods? What is the difficulty?

These questions can, perhaps, best be answered by drawing a comparison between the normal and the abnormal child, laying down some general principles, and illustrating the methods of teaching by giving one or two cases which have come under my own observation.

The normal child has all his senses acute, keen, on the alert. He recognizes the mother's voice, sees any bright object near him, grasps firmly the finger placed in his hand. The senses of the abnormal child are all dormant, sluggish, perhaps morbid. A film seems to be over his eyes; to the mother's voice, he never responds; his limbs are useless; he is also deficient in will power. I was once asked by

the late Dr. Bellows, of New York, What constitutes an imbecile? The imbecile child is one who has the fewest of wants. Perhaps his only want is to be made comfortable, that is all; but, from that one simple want, we shall climb, step by step, the ladder of wants, and so ascend in part the scale of all human development.

Now, what are we to do for these children that have no wants? We are to create wants. How? By giving them that on which wants feed. Did you ever see a mother hug her new-born babe so tenderly, as if her soul were overflowing with a truly sacrificial love? That is the way you are to take these little ones,—in your arms. Make them feel your gentleness, your tenderness, your love for them. The work requires faith,—faith in God as your heavenly Father, and in these little ones as truly the children of God. With this love and this faith, you can conquer any case that I have ever seen.

One of the most trying cases that I ever saw I had to deal with in my early experience. It was a boy about eight and a half years old. He had never known his mother, so she told me. She had never seen a smile upon his face. His father had tried to send a light from some shining object into his eyes, but he never blinked but once. He had not the power of locomotion; his lower limbs were paralyzed. Not even the sense of pain or the sense of touch did he have. This boy I found dressed in a red flannel gown, lying upon the floor. He could not even roll over; he could do nothing. There are a great many others as bad as he, but let us see what we did with him.

I took the boy with me with the greatest care to the institution, and dealt with him as with a babe. He was held in arms, fed, rubbed, manipulated, worked upon to see if we could arouse the energy of his body. He was properly bathed and exercised, and everything possible done to develop him. After a month's careful study of his case, I made up my mind that I must get down to him. Where did I get my lesson? I observed one day how a mother, a bright, intelligent woman, managed her child. She was upon the second floor; and her boy, who was on the lower floor, disobeyed her. She did not scream to him from the top of the second flight of stairs, saying, "Jack, you must not do that." She came down stairs, both flights; and getting right down to him, on the same level with him, eye to eye, she said, "My dear boy, don't you know that that is wrong?" The boy melted, and threw his arms around his mother's neck. That is where I got my lesson. Get upon the floor,—get down where the child is, right down there. If he knows anything, it is

down there. You must take hold of the slightest things in your favor. Day after day, for an hour at a time, for three months, I took a book and read aloud to that boy,—intelligently, as if he understood every word I said, adapting the intonations as if I were reading to an intelligent person. When mothers talk to their little babes, telling them little “goo-goo” stories, what is the effect? The bright child wakes up by and by to this pleasant voice in the ear. And so it might be with this unfortunate boy here. And so it was. He finally heard this voice that was ringing around him in a musical tone month after month; and one day, when I came and simply sat in a chair and read to myself, I looked one side to see if he missed me, and the child actually appeared uneasy. Imagining that he missed me, I lay down on the floor beside him as usual, saying: “Oh, you want me, Sylvanus? Well, I am here.” He breathed a soft “Ah!” I had planted the first want. He wanted me, and he wanted me there. He had felt my influence there: I was too far off in the chair. So I read to him two or three months more. Then, instead of reading aloud, I read to myself one day. After a long time, I saw he was trying to do something. I watched him. Gradually, he lifted his finger, and laid it on my lips. “Oh, you want me to read to you, do you?” And so I read. Another want had been implanted. I read to him every day, letting him always have the privilege of opening my lips. At last, he smiled,—the first smile of recognition that ever came upon that unfortunate child’s features. It was enough to pay me ten thousand times over for all I had done. “If we can redeem one,” I said to Dr. Howe, “we will redeem them all over the country. We will open the doors so wide that every State shall pass an act to found an institution for these unfortunates, and every intelligent being shall feel that it is a privilege to enter into this great work.”

This boy, step by step, went on. Finally, I could take him up, and have him where I pleased. He was near me, we were one. He felt it and knew it. He was glad to be taken up. This training went on till one day I found he could move his limbs. I put him on his hands and knees, to teach him to creep. This was nearly a year and a half after he came into the institution. As I placed him there, I said, “I wonder if I can help him to talk.” He had not talked any. I said to him: “Now move this hand: that is right. Now the other: that is a good boy. Now move this leg: that is right. Now the other: that is a good boy,” guiding them as I spoke. I did this every day for months, till finally I found he was trying to do it himself between the drills. Awhile afterward, I thought I saw his lips moving as he

did it. Putting down my ear very close, I found he was talking. He was whispering to himself: "Move this hand: that is right. Now the other: that is a good boy. Now move this leg: that is right. Now the other: that is a good boy." He had heard me talk in such a way, and it had aroused him to talk.

We went on. Object lessons came in. He must go down to the shoemaker's every day to see the shoemaker make him a pair of shoes. "What are those, Sylvanus?" we would ask; and he would say, "Shoes." "Who made them?" "Shoemaker." "What is this?" "Bread." "Who made it?" "Betsey" (the girl). And so the object lessons had a connection in his mind. One day, I showed him an apple. "What is that?" "Apple." He had picked them up on the ground. "Who made it?" "Don't know." "Didn't the shoemaker?" "No." "Didn't Betsey?" "No." It was time to give him another lesson.

I took him up stairs one morning to an east window, to see the sun rise. "What is that, Sylvanus? Say sun." "Sun," he repeated. "Who made it, Sylvanus? Say God." "God," he repeated. I left him there, and went down stairs. When breakfast was ready, I sent the nurse for him. When I came to the school-room, there was this little boy. He had crept up to the window, and was talking to another boy: "What is that, Charlie? Say sun, Charlie. Who made it? Say God, Charlie." I was dumb. I could do nothing. He was the teacher all day, calling up one child after another, and going through his brief lesson: "What is that? Say sun. Who made it? Say God." He was the best teacher I ever had.

That is the way: You must take the clew before you, and not always thrust yourself in. Some days after in my object lessons, I took up the apple. "Who made it?" I asked of the children. All were silent except Sylvanus. He looked as if he had a thought. "What do you think, Sylvanus?" I asked. "God," was the reply. He had made the connection. Remember this was the little child that, when eight and a half years old, lay upon the floor, and could not recognize a thing about him.

One day, Sylvanus saw a mother come in, and take up another child and try a jacket on him. Sylvanus looked up in my face, and asked, "Have I a mother?" He wanted a mother. Yes, we all want mothers; and this little boy wanted one, too. I told him that he had a mother. He said that he wanted to see her. I wrote to her, and told her to bring Sylvanus a jacket. So she came one day; and, when she came into the room, she looked all around, and

said, "Where is Sylvanus?" When he heard his name, he answered: "Here I am: is that my mother? O mother, I am so glad to see you!" Joy upon the return of one among the angels? Here was one redeemed.

Feeble-minded children are anxious to tell all they know. I had a little boy once who puzzled me very much in training. One day, my wife asked me to take him up to her room. When she came down at dinner-time, she said that she left her thimble on the table when she sat down to work, and, when she reached over to get it, Edmund made a sound as if he noticed it. I asked her to do the same thing the next day, and to take his hand, lay it on the thimble, and bring it toward herself. She did so. The next day, she came down, and said, "He gave it to me." She let him do it every day, till at last he wanted to go up stairs to get the thimble. Then I gave him a nail, and got him to put it into a hole in a plank, and kept calling it nail all the time. At last, one day he himself said, "Nail, nail, nail." It was a nail, and he was talking. In the same way, he learned to say shoe; and these two words he constantly repeated. One day, he ran up to Dr. Howe, taking his nail, and saying repeatedly, "Nail, nail; shoe, shoe." Dr. Howe, being in a hurry, said, "Yes, yes: I see," and turned away. "O Dr. Howe," I said, "he is telling you all he knows: it is little, to be sure, but it is all to him." Then Dr. Howe, turning to Edmund again, patting him, said, "That's right, my good little fellow: I see you are doing very nicely." And Edmund went away smiling.

So, when you are teaching, you must not forget what is all to these little ones. You must accept it as a grand good thing, and then they will try to get something else. If you do not, they will be discouraged. You should not let them get discouraged, and you should not get discouraged yourself.

And here let me say, in conclusion, If you have tried once and have not succeeded, try once more. And, if it does not do then, try a hundred times, a hundred and one. If that does not answer, try two hundred, three hundred, four hundred, five hundred times. Do be generous, and try a thousand and one times.

V.

Preventive Work.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON PREVENTIVE WORK AMONG CHILDREN.

BY HON. WILLIAM P. LETCHWORTH, CHAIRMAN.

The care of that numerous class coming under the general designation of "foundlings," or dependent nursing infants, has never been specially considered by former Conferences; and it has been thought best by the Committee on Preventive Work among Children to bring the subject forward at this time. In the field of charity as elsewhere, the most valuable knowledge is that acquired by experience. Looking at the question in its practical aspects, the committee concluded to ask some one of those distinguished in this field of benevolence for a relation of actual experience, and results therefrom. The selection fell to Mrs. Cornelius Du Bois, founder of the Nursery and Child's Hospital of New York City, who has kindly prepared for the Conference a paper, which the committee has entitled "Thirty Years' Experience in Nursery and Child-hospital Work." This grand project, begun under great difficulties by an heroic woman, passed through many vicissitudes, and finally obtained a success which ranks it among the best institutions of its class in the world. It will be seen that, in many respects, its methods are peculiar. Had space permitted, illustrations of other systems of care would have been given. The subject presents various phases in connection with the alms-house or poorhouse system, respecting which different views are held by specialists. It was hoped and, until quite recently, expected that Mrs. Clara T. Leonard, member of the Massachusetts Board of Health, Lunacy, and Charity, would attend this Conference, and give us her views from extended observations as a charity visitor. Mrs. Leonard expresses great regret that she is unavoidably absent, but she has sent us a valuable paper on "Dependent Young Children in Families and Institutions."

Other views on this mooted question will doubtless be brought out in discussion.

Much has been said in former Conferences for and against the placing of children in homes, without previous training or preparation through institutional agency. It was not intended, at the outset, to open this question; but the committee finally consented to accept from Mr. L. P. Alden, late superintendent of the Michigan State School at Coldwater, and now superintendent of the Rose Orphan Home, Indiana, a paper giving his views on this matter. Having thus opened the subject, the committee thinks it only fair that those holding to the family plan as against the institution method should also be heard. Commissioner Smith, of the Connecticut State Board of Charities, will therefore read a brief paper on the question.

The remarkable success attending industrial training of girls, by the ingenious and attractive devices of Miss Louisa J. Kirkwood of New York City, as happily exemplified in her illustrated text-book, designed for industrial schools, orphan asylums, children's homes, etc., induced the committee to ask from her a paper, which she entitles "Hints on Methods of Industrial Training for Girls."

To Froebel, who originated, and to his enthusiastic disciples, who have adapted and extended the kindergarten system, the busy world will never stop to think how much it is indebted. The steep hill of science, once so dreary and hard to climb, has been transformed into an enchanted garden of blooming bowers, pleasant walks, and delightful surprises. This system of instruction, which has promoted, rather than sacrificed the health and happiness of unnumbered little folks entering the labyrinths of knowledge, has found no more successful field for its extension than the Pacific slope. The inspired pioneer of this work at the golden gate of our western empire is Mrs. Sarah B. Cooper, of San Francisco. Her national reputation makes an introduction to a Conference of this character unnecessary. The title of her paper is "The Kindergarten as a Character Builder."

When we consider education in its relation to preventive work, we touch a subject so broad that its sublime and beneficent possibilities seem to outreach human conception. By request of the committee, the importance of this branch of our subject will be emphasized in the Conference by a gentleman who may justly speak with authority. The paper presented by Prof. W. T. Harris, on "Compulsory Education in its Relation to Crime and Social Morals," will doubtless receive that careful consideration to which its high authorship entitles it.

THIRTY YEARS' EXPERIENCE IN NURSERY AND CHILD HOSPITAL WORK.

BY MRS. MARY A. DU BOIS, NEW YORK.

Experience is founded on the mistakes of the past. To be benefited by it, there must be a willingness to lay aside prejudice in order to grasp the truth, and an earnest desire for improvement. A certain amount of historical knowledge shows that what was considered a virtue in olden times is now a crime. Quintilian writes, "To kill a man is often held to be a crime, but to kill one's own child is sometimes considered a beautiful action"; and Seneca, when speaking of drowning weak or ill-formed children, says, "It is not anger, but reason, thus to separate the useless from the sound." The power of Christianity can hardly be shown more wonderfully than in the changed conditions of women and children. In former times, women were treated with less consideration than favorite animals. Even now, our missionaries in foreign lands tell us of the inhuman treatment of women even by their own sex. But the clouds of ignorance are dispersing, science and religion are hand in hand, and the experience of the last thirty-one years is now offered to you by relating the facts which have commenced and continued in the pioneer movement made by the Nursery and Child's Hospital of the city of New York.

The attention of the public was called to the great infant mortality in the city of New York in the year 1854. Articles in the newspapers, relating the horrors of "baby farming" and of the ill treatment of infants at the almshouse, had been published, but, being headed "Murder of the Innocents," were considered sensational, and discredited. In February of the same year, the story was told of a wet-nurse's child found in a damp basement room, in a basket under the bed, on which a woman lay ill with small-pox, whose own infant had died of that frightful disease. This poor woman was paid a high price for the care of the infant, whose mother was not allowed to visit it for fear of carrying contagious disease from a tenement house to the child of a wealthy mother. The story was told, with many additional horrors, to two ladies; and inquiries were made at once of a leading physician as to the fate of wet-nurses' infants, as far as his experience allowed him to judge. His answer was, "As a rule, all infants of wet-nurses die, and generally from neglect." The children of the poor were sacrificed to the children of the wealthy. One lady

returned from this visit with a saddened heart ; and, when she saw her own darlings bright and happy and well nursed, the contrast was so great, that sympathy kept that mother awake all night, praying for some inspiration to guide and direct her to alleviate some portion of the sorrows of poor women. And when morning came, and her husband listened to a plan she had arranged, his ready sympathy flowed in unison with her own. With a gift of \$100 to begin the work, she joyfully arose, and before three o'clock had collected \$900. The next day, \$850 was collected ; and, in three weeks, \$10,000 was obtained from her friends. The idea was started on the 5th of February. On the 19th of April, a charter was obtained ; and, on the 1st of May, the Nursery for the children of poor women was opened. The act of incorporation states that "the object and business of the society is the maintenance and care of the children of wet-nurses, and the daily charge of infants whose parents labor away from home." . . .

Quoting the second annual report of the Nursery and Child's Hospital, we find : —

Within the past year, 267 children have been received, and 122 women benefited by this charity. Many of the latter were respectable and worthy women, who, having been deserted by their worthless husbands at a time when they most required care, were forced to resort to Ward's Island or Bellevue Hospital, and become dependants on public charity. When proof of their good character and certificates of marriage could be produced, our Nursery has opened its doors to these poor creatures, sheltered them for a time, and prevented their being longer degraded as paupers. Then, having procured places in respectable families for the mothers, we have taken charge of their little ones. We can point to several of these children, hitherto inmates of the almshouse, who, though coming to us in a sickly and diseased condition, are now running about in good health. By preventing pauperism, we strike at the root of one of the crying evils of our city. One child was found in a sailor's boarding-house, the father on the point of sailing, his wife dying ; and the baby, then only eleven days old, had received no other care than that which could be given by a rough seaman and a child nine years of age.

In the fifth annual report, we find : —

One great difficulty we labor under is the want of wet-nurses. We keep twenty-five constantly. But women in the station they occupy are seldom found with the maternal instinct strong enough to induce them to remain and nurse their own infants, when they can obtain high wages and enjoy the luxurious life of a wet-nurse in a private family.

The poor, always suspicious of efforts made in their behalf, could not comprehend the love which prompted ladies to leave comfortable homes and happy faces, to take care of wretched, unattractive children ; and the *rich*, little knowing from what misery these children

were taken, and unwisely listening to the pitiful tales of mothers (only made more pitiful to extort money), have by their thoughtlessness often made our labors greater than they otherwise would have been. So great was the demand for places as soon as the institution was opened that in one week the house was full. But, alas! the babies who were brought in, were mostly covered with terrible sores from neglect and poor nourishment. Many of the managers were so shocked by the sights presented that several said it was impossible to visit the Nursery or manage the house. This was the first serious obstacle. But some still remained faithful and energetic, and felt that these dreadful sights only showed that the need of such an institution was greater than at first believed. The nurses, who were often mothers of these miserable sufferers, sometimes refused to stay and take care of loathsome cases, and threatened desertion, which would have led to starvation. It took months to overcome this feeling, and it was only accomplished by the moral effect of example. The worst cases were attended by a manager under a physician's orders. A case of small-pox would have produced a panic but for the fact that a lady took the child on her lap and sang her to sleep. The nurses remarked, "Of course, it is chicken-pox, or Mrs. — would not do that." All in the house were vaccinated, as the doctor, arriving at the time, was asked if he had attended to that first rule on the list. Having said that he had not, she insisted that every one in the house should be vaccinated before he left it. This little scene of course had been arranged by sending a note to the doctor, stating the case and imploring him to bring plenty of virus. Thus was the danger averted. There were many deaths, but vacancies were instantly filled. The managers heard constant taunts and frequent curses, but continued the work till they became convinced that the doctors were right in saying the mortality was caused by overcrowding. But it has taken years to prove that "the greatest good to the greatest number" can be gained only by allowing from 500 to 800 cubic feet of air to each person. The result is the lowering of the death-rate from 98 per cent. to from 5 to 15 per cent. per annum.

The numbers of sick children constantly brought, showed the need of a hospital, where the sick could be separated from the healthy. In 1856, the large stone wing in the rear of the New York Hospital was finished, and the temporary wooden cottages were to be taken down and removed. A strong impulse suddenly impelled a manager to ask for one of these cottages as a gift, for the institution had been obliged to seek larger accommodations than were furnished by the

two houses in St. Mark's Place. It had been moved to Sixth Avenue, where many vacant lots were at its disposal. The request was at first laughed at; but earnest pleading had its effect, and the governors of the New York Hospital granted the petition. The cottage (25 feet by 40) was reconstructed in 1856; and a petition to amend the charter and change the name to "The Nursery and Child's Hospital" was granted by the legislature. Our rooms were always so crowded, even with our increased accommodations, that it was determined to apply to the State legislature for \$10,000, to aid in building a large nursery on lots leased to us by the city in 51st Street. After many tribulations, the sum was granted; and the corner-stone of the building now forming the east wing of the Nursery and Child's Hospital was laid June 22, 1857. This building cost over \$20,000.

At first, the feeling was strong against the admission of illegitimate children. But the pitiable condition of such as were brought to us and refused, so affected the heart of the first directress that she persuaded the city authorities to grant the lease of the lots at the corner of Lexington Avenue and 51st Street, for the purpose of erecting a building to shelter illegitimate children. It cost \$40,000. This fine hospital was just finished at the breaking out of our civil war, and the necessities of our wounded soldiers required the occupation of it for four years. The care of this building was vested in the mayor and first directress of the Nursery.

During the war, the feeling on the part of the managers of the Nursery against the unfortunate waifs and strays of the city had changed to one of deep sympathy. With the additional desire of preventing the suicides of erring mothers, the managers consented to extend their care over the building then known as the Infant's Home. When it was known that women could at any time be received at the almshouse, and leave their infants there when two weeks old, it seemed strange that suicide and infanticide were so common. The assistance of the police revealed the fact that with many women the sense of remorse could not be borne. Death was preferable, and another crime was added. And then came the thought that with such a sense of shame, there might be a chance for reform. It soon became known that not only infants could be received in the Nursery, but that women could be received before the birth of their children, under certain conditions. Only those who had hitherto led a virtuous life, and earnestly desired to return to a life of respectability could be admitted. The many who came, and who have proved during years of trial their sense of gratitude for such a shelter, have,

by consistent lives, encouraged those who have labored in this work. Again, application was made for permission to add to their charter the power to open a Lying-in Hospital; and, in December, 1865, this additional refuge was opened. During the war, many had seen how admirably this building was arranged; and it was only after many contests that it was finally restored and occupied as originally designed. The Roman Catholics wanted it for a school, the North-eastern Dispensary (which was commenced in the basement of our 51st Street Nursery) wished to claim it, and the militia tried to get it for an armory. Aided by Senators Erastus Brooks and Spencer, by Manton Marble, Esq., by the firmness and kindness of Mayor Gunther, and by the military authority of Gen. Dix, the Nursery overcame all obstacles, and triumphed; the Common Council of the city of New York granting a perpetual lease of the building and lots at the corner of Lexington Avenue and 51st Street. While the war was in progress, time was given to study thoroughly the methods observed and experience obtained by the foreign foundling hospitals. The one in London, so well known, founded by Thomas Coram, for several years admitted any foundlings presented, or left in the basket at the door. But, in the reign of Queen Anne, vice had increased to such an alarming extent that the charter was revoked, and new rules ordered. Indiscriminate admission was abolished, and only those infants were taken in who had mothers penitent and anxious to return to a life of virtue. In other countries, discrimination is now observed; and great improvement in morals has followed. Those who have been brought up in happy homes, tenderly shielded from even the knowledge of evil in the world, naturally turn with horror and disgust, when a mother pleads for help for an illegitimate child. If they could see and understand the hardships of poverty and the temptations to which the poor are exposed, the sin would not be lessened in their eyes, but they would feel the importance of the prevention of crime.

Look for a moment at the poor hard-working mother, whose incessant labor is required to provide food for the little ones who are impeding her work in every way. Can that poor woman find time for a caress, or soothing words to still a cry? Can she welcome another burden? Her husband has probably left her, and she works on in dull misery. The children must grow up as best they can, with no comfort in life, and no joy, no love to cheer. By and by comes the first kind word or caress from a stranger. The heart of the girl revives; and from ignorance, or perhaps innocence, she finds

that her first knowledge of human love has become a crushing curse. Again, look at a young girl in a higher class of life,—hard working, but with some ambition to advance herself. As soon as she leaves the public school, she finds attractive situations offered, if she is good-looking, if she dresses well, and if she can stand all day long, attending to the vanities which to others are pleasing, but to her are terrible temptations. Love of dress, love of admiration excited by it, makes the temptation too great to be borne. Do we wish to excuse this? No. But we see to what it leads. Their occupation as saleswomen exposes them. An idle word or a slight pleasantry at first amuses, then is expected, and the result of flattered vanity is ruin. They are turned out, disgraced, and by the horrors of remorse driven often to suicide. And those who pandered to this vanity and ruin, do they suffer? Are they also cast out from all virtuous association? Do mothers refuse to admit to their homes, where daughters should be shielded, young men who are facetiously called “fast,” meaning thereby that their characters are questionable? Not if they are rich or influential. Even when their vices are known, their sins are as nothing, if they are fashionable. Until men as well as women are made to suffer equally, let no one receive the one and condemn the other, whose physical and mental sufferings are ignored by their partners in sin.

In 1869, an experiment was made, hoping to diminish the mortality always recurring in the hot summer months. The change of air from city to country produced such wonderful results that we again applied to the State for aid to establish a permanent home in the country; and, the means being granted, the Country Branch of the Nursery and Child's Hospital was opened July 4, 1870. The great improvement in health, and the increasing numbers requiring our care, led to the eventual building of fourteen cottages, which are always full.

In regard to a proper location of a building for a nursery or home for mothers and children, of course a place in the country is best, where pure air, good water, and well-drained grounds can be obtained. Such places are not, however, appreciated by the poor, who really enjoy the crowded rooms of tenement houses more than the benefits of salubrious surroundings. They complain of being lonely when there are no liquor shops to welcome them, and where a fight now and then is more exciting than the rules of a well-ordered institution.

They will often wait till starvation threatens before they will seek an asylum; and then it is too late to eradicate the mischief already

done by the use of liquor, both in parent and child. Therefore, the first effort made in the temperance cause should be the prevention of any taste of liquor in any form to a child. Soothing syrups often lay the foundation of a love of drink, and it is also well known that a drunkard's child inherits the love of liquor. The only safeguard is to remove the child as soon as weaned, and keep it for years without the sight or taste of intoxicating drink or vicious examples. Temperance will flourish when whole families of children are saved, instead of aiming at a few parents who are generally hopeless cases. In all nurseries, asylums, and reformatories for women and children, women should govern. Trustees or managers, doctors, matrons, officials, and servants should all be women. The only exceptions should be a small advisory committee of gentlemen to audit the yearly accounts and attend to the investment of funds, and a board of consulting physicians, who will also attend in cases of emergency. A regular statement of all the expenses and receipts should be made in tabular form by a treasurer every month. Every bill should be examined by the secretary or matron, and indorsed "Correct" before it is paid by the treasurer. An annual meeting should be held, where reports from secretary and treasurer should be read, giving a full statement of the work done during the year. Admissions, discharges, births, and deaths should be recorded, and a full medical report made, stating any improvements in sanitary work, drainage, or ventilation.

The education of children begins by law in the State of New York at five years of age. But kindergartens serve to amuse little ones of four years, and teach them how to *think*, so that, when real schooling begins, they make more rapid progress. But it must be recollected that, if the minds are forced unnaturally, it will be at the expense of physical advancement. Except in cases of vice, the tie should not be broken between parent and child. A mother should be willing to pay a proportion of her wages for the support of her child, but should never be required to sacrifice decency or neatness of appearance for her children. Order and decency must be the rule from the beginning of life. A slatternly mother will not have a good influence over her child. A principle of constant, thorough elevation of every thought should begin in earliest youth. Cleanliness, propriety in speech and manners, and *punctuality* should be considered very important; and those are easily taught in the kindergarten.

Wherever children are congregated, there is always danger of inflammation of the eyes. It was long before it was understood

that it was caused not only by overcrowding, but that dampness from newly scrubbed floors almost inevitably produced sore eyes among infants and children. Wherever the greatest cleanliness was observed, and spotless floors were seen, the more ophthalmic disease was manifested. A manager, noting this, stopped on her way to the Nursery, and ordered several rolls of carpeting to be sent, and no scrubbing to be done in that ward till further orders. The change was remarkable. No new cases appeared; and, although carpeted floors are not desirable, our experience showed that damp floors, fumes of soap, and particles of wood, however minute, loosened by scrubbing, were some of the causes of inflammation of the eyes. No child should be allowed to remain in a room damp from scrubbing.

In cases of the adoption of children, great care should be taken to find out from disinterested parties the disposition and temper of those to whom they are confided. Much evil may result from carelessness in this respect.

A law passed in 1856 allows a per capita allowance for destitute children, and mothers whose children were born in the Nursery and Child's Hospital. To this just, equitable, and generous action of the State and city of New York is owing the financial success of the institution. This could not have been given without having won the confidence of both State and city officials. This regular allowance enables the managers to devote their energies, talents, and their time to watching the practical work, always requiring unceasing vigilance, untrammelled by anxious cares about necessary supplies. A law was passed in 1884, providing homes for the children of drunkards. Prevention is better than cure. We are no longer obliged to give children back to their wretched parents whose destitute condition is caused by their sins. On entering the Nursery, the children at first pine for the liquor that has been used to still their cries, and sometimes are made ill when good food is substituted for the unhealthy stuff to which they have become habituated. This is very discouraging, but patience and perseverance overcome all.

When a new charity is to be organized, it of course requires first the estimate of its cost, and the certainty of sufficient means to carry on the work for more than one year. A new charity with earnest workers will probably enlist the sympathy of many. Subscriptions for a year will be paid cheerfully. Donations of large bundles of second-hand clothing excite a hope that the bills for dry-goods will be small. Experience shows that, when subscriptions are to be col-

lected a second time, new charities have been commenced ; and the money has been taken from the first, to begin the second benevolent effort. Donations will have to be used to pay for dry-goods, as second-hand clothing, as a rule, lasts for one washing. Therefore, it is not wise to begin until enough is collected to carry on the work for two years.

That gives sufficient time to prove the necessity for it, and to see that it is well arranged and systematically carried on. After that, aid may be asked with the consciousness of deserving it.

When children arrive at the age of four years, it is better to remove them from an institution and place them in village homes, before they are old enough to consider themselves paupers. But this system, though proved to be excellent, must be conducted with great care. The manners and disposition of those who board them must be studied before the children are placed. They must be kind and motherly, using no harsh language, and careful about the food and clothing. An agent must call at unexpected times, and inspect their beds and food. A physician must examine their persons once a week, see to the proper ventilation of the rooms, and, if there is any deficiency of appetite, examine their teeth and gums. This may seem trifling, but it is important. If any symptom of contagious disease appears, immediate isolation is necessary. Measles is more to be dreaded in an institution than any other contagion. Every cottage must have sufficient room outside for air and exercise. When all these safeguards are attended to, the village home system far surpasses any other ; but vigilance should never be relaxed. Plenty of clothing must be allowed, and neatness enforced. At eight years of age, places should be found either by friends or by the Children's Aid Society, who find homes for children at the West. They are employed generally on farms, and are taught to be self-supporting, and, as a rule, become useful members of society.

While convinced that indiscriminate admission of foundlings encourages vice, we feel sure that many souls are saved by surrounding unfortunate mothers with kind and religious influences, thus inspiring hope for the future in this world and the next. These women should be made to nurse their own infants. The child at its birth is often an object of dislike or horror to the mother. She sees always before her the consequences of her sin. She knows that the child will not only be a burden to her, but that the innocent one will also have to bear the burden of shame.

It often seems that the most sensitive are those who really would

be glad to see the little one die. A few sympathizing words to the mother, and kind notice of the baby, soon allow the maternal instinct to develop. As she imparts life to the child by constant nursing and care, love comes to the heart of the mother, and by God's help both are saved.

Much is also gained by ante-natal influences. A hopeless, despairing woman, reduced by poverty of food and mental agony, cannot be expected to bring a healthy or good-natured child into the world. By kind words and nourishing diet, the mental and physical condition are benefited. Great care, however, must be taken not to exhibit too much sympathy, or it may be supposed that the sin is not considered so great as it really is. While the woman after admission should not be reminded in words of her crime, there should be such influences surrounding her as to show that she is in a reformatory; and any undue levity or the use of evil words must be considered as showing unworthiness of the refuge afforded. Strict surveillance is imperative; but firmness, and not harshness, is what is needed. Any expression of indignation or disgust would repel the poor sinner, and induce her to shun the place.

This work requires, not only sympathy in managers, but a training of the intellect, and a constant control over the kindest feelings of a woman's nature. Unless this is obtained, confusion must ensue. Many young girls of from fourteen years and upwards have been sheltered and their infants cared for. As far as possible, they should be kept apart from older ones and receive strict watchfulness. The clouds of ignorance have been made lighter by improvements in sanitary science. Good drainage, thorough ventilation, and proper food are now sufficiently understood to prevent obstacles seemingly insurmountable thirty-one years ago. But all is not perfect yet. Vigilance must be maintained, and the lessons of the past carefully considered before any attempt is made to organize any institution for women and children.

The success of the Nursery is now so well appreciated that scarcely a month passes that we do not receive applications from strangers for our rules and advice. Others see the necessity for this charity, and desire to begin Nurseries in almost all the cities in the Union. Ladies in Canada have copied our work, and a Nursery and Child's Hospital is in successful operation at Calcutta. But many have become discouraged; and it is with the hope that this history may be seen by some earnest but timid workers that we say, with thanks to God, who has given us the victory, Courage! and with

patience, with perseverance, and, above all, with unwavering faith in God's help, success is sure. We point out the dangers and obstacles, and they can be avoided or overcome.

"The best love man can offer
To the God of love, be sure,
Is kindness to his little ones
And bounty to his poor."

SAVING THE CHILDREN.

BY MRS. CLARA T. LEONARD.

It must always be kept in mind by those persons who bestow charity, either as public officials or private benefactors, that they are applying remedies to the diseases and weaknesses of society; that these remedies, if injudiciously administered, may tend to increase the evil which they seek to alleviate.

Very few of the many young children who are dependent on public or private charity are orphans or even motherless. A large number are illegitimate, abandoned by their mothers, their fathers unknown or uncertain as to identity. Others are the offspring of dissolute parents, who fail to provide for their wants. A few are without relatives, but these are the exception. No young animal is so helpless as the human animal nor for so long a period. To supply its wants, God has created parental affection, qualities of patience and self-sacrifice, common to the whole human race, except where the natural affections and tendencies are perverted and debased by vice and sin. There must be some strong counteracting influence which leads parents to desert their offspring. The shame of her position will often operate thus upon the mother of an illegitimate child. The father who knows no sacred tie of wedlock, no obligation to the mother of his child, who bears inevitably the heavy burden of their common error, naturally seeks to escape, in most cases, from responsibility. Dissolute parents of children born in wedlock rarely abandon them, even if neglectful or brutal toward them. Nearly always in these persons, the natural love of offspring exists; but the penal servitude and extreme poverty consequent upon vicious habits lead to frequent or permanent separations.

For the good of both parents and children, for the diminution of public burdens, and for the prevention of the evils arising from the

presence in the community of deserted children, it should be a fundamental principle in all benevolent work to preserve the parental relation in all cases where it is possible. The next important principle should be to give the child, who cannot have a real parent, a substitute for one in the individual care of a trustworthy and affectionate woman. This paper must necessarily be a brief one; and to these two points I shall confine its limits, with an attempt to give an outline of the official care in Massachusetts of dependent young children.

It is a common error for benevolent women to fall into, when their sympathies are enlisted for an unmarried mother, to seek to separate her from her child, that she may begin the world anew, free from the stigma which is such a barrier to her future welfare. Those who make this mistake are usually persons of limited experience, who attempt to suppress symptoms without curing the malady which produces them. It will be found by long experience that the world's view of woman's chastity is, on the whole, a wise one. It is she who must preserve the family in its purity, and any moral code which lessens the general strictness in regard to woman's purity is dangerous to the whole peace of society. If a woman falls, she may be an innocent victim; but she probably is not, and the same inherent moral weakness which led to her fall will cause a repetition of her error. Nothing is so likely to save her from further degradation as to encourage her love for her child, to assist her to take care of it, and by all means to keep it with her, if possible. In nearly all cases, it is possible, by assistance and friendly counsel; and this is what is done in Massachusetts by the State Board of Charity and by various private benevolent societies where good women have seen the value of this method.

During a period of nearly twenty years, I have been engaged in this work, more or less, both in connection with private societies and the official work of the State. Having for eleven of the years since 1870 been myself a member of a State commission, I have had the privilege, in this work, to be associated with a large number of women similarly engaged, many of whom have given much more time and labor to it than I have; and I have been able to see results, as a large number of dependent children have grown up in that time to useful and happy adult life. I have seen many apparently unpromising girls saved from further wrong-doing by the aid they received at the right time; and I have learned, as a vital principle, that to stifle the maternal instinct, to make it easy for a mother to give up her child, is to poison the well-spring of the woman's soul,

to pervert the holiest of human affections, the one which is most nearly like the divine nature.

It is common to say: "Oh, she cannot take care of the baby! How can she earn her living with it? She must board it out." Or, "It must go to a babies' home," — as if there could be such a thing as a babies' home without a mother! In fact, there is no need of a mother parting with her child, unless she is hopelessly sick, or insane, or too brutal to be trusted with it, which is certainly rare. In Massachusetts, and probably everywhere else, we find some women who need the shelter of our almshouse or a private institution for a time, while the infant is young; and it is sometimes the best thing we can do for a friendless woman to afford her this shelter while she is getting upon her feet again. It gives the infant an infinitely better chance for future life and health, if it is not deprived of its natural food during the first ten months of its life; and it often permits the ignorant, untrained mother to receive some training which will fit her for future self-support. In our much defamed State almshouse at Tewksbury there are always a large number — perhaps one hundred — mothers with infants or young children. They occupy clean, airy quarters, have wholesome food and wise medical and other supervision, and are employed in kitchen and laundry or sewing-room, where they receive industrial training. The only drawback there is the aggregation of a class whose moral tone is low, and whose influence upon each other is not counteracted by other influences. The visitation of such institutions by an organization of women who can bring to these inmates something better than they now know is most desirable; also that there should be a systematic effort to replace them in the outside world on sure foundations. It goes without saying that some of them are irreclaimable, and that some are mentally defective; but there is a great field for benevolent labor in this direction, as has been proved by the success achieved by a few workers where many are needed. The best thing for a mother and her baby is to place them together in some country family, where for low wages a comfortable home and kind friends may be gained. I have seen many cases where the baby became a beloved household pet; and I have known a green, ignorant girl of seventeen years go with a baby two months old into a country family, and wholly maintain herself and child thenceforth, and lay up thirty or forty dollars in a savings bank the second year. But this was all done through patient, friendly care of a benevolent lady, whose patience was often sorely tried. I have seen, too, many a one of these poor outcast

babies first saved from death by keeping it with its mother, and then become the beloved adopted child, in time, of a good family, or else go with its mother to her married home. I have also seen most unfortunate results from separation. The mother being apart from her child, seeing it occasionally, paying for its support, becomes weary of the burden, looks to an escape from her disgrace among strangers; and the affection which in her low, undeveloped nature is an animal instinct is weakened by separation, until it expires, and she deserts the child. When we remember how many widows and deserted wives manage to keep their families together, and support two or three or more children in decent poverty, it must be admitted that any able-bodied woman can maintain herself and one child, if she is willing to do it.

It is by patient effort and toil on the part of most of the human race that the necessities of life are supplied. Take away the incentive to labor and self-denial, and how many of us would exert ourselves? Free-handed almsgiving creates paupers and multiplies dependants. A State which is munificent in its public charities must ever guard itself against the influx from beyond its borders of unnumbered claimants for its bounties. Massachusetts has been compelled to enact very strict laws to escape being overwhelmed by the inhabitants of other States, of the neighboring British Dominions, and the immigrants from foreign shores, who throng into her cities, to be maintained by her rich and liberal hand. Especially have unmarried mothers resorted to our State to avail themselves of the public and private charity which provides for them in their hour of need, and which will not let the helpless infants die of neglect, if abandoned. A statute of 1882, chapter 270, imposes severe penalties, both upon a mother who deserts her infant, and also upon persons who aid and abet her in so doing, by taking infants to board without due notice to overseers of the poor. Since the enforcement of this law, the number of foundlings deserted in the State has greatly decreased. Just before the law was passed, the number was increasing with alarming rapidity. Doubtless, the ease with which mothers relinquished their burdens caused many to do so who would otherwise have taken care of their children. It may be argued that infanticide will be the result of too strict measures; but this will not be found to be of frequent occurrence, when mother and child are suitably provided for together. There are some women who are devoid, it is true, of all moral sense and human affection, who will murder a baby without any compunction. They belong to that low,

brutal class, debased by drink and licentiousness and vile associations, for whom I see no help in this life. But even in the most apparently debased there is sometimes a power of moral recuperation, and we should give every one a chance to improve. If we have in mind that the great moral law makes every wilful act of wrongdoing a step downward of the whole nature, and makes progress more difficult after every wrong act, we shall better perceive that the promptings of conscience which a mother disregards, when she leaves her child to strangers, will be weaker and less heeded in the next temptation to leave duty undone or openly and deliberately to commit sin. The soul cannot be partly sick and partly well, any more than the body can. A trifling wound may poison the whole system fatally: a soul's health must be perfect, to be secure. No duty can be safely evaded, and a deliberate sin is far more dangerous than an unpremeditated lapse from right. Let us seek, then, to inculcate the duties of parents; for a parent is under equal obligations, whether the offspring is the desired fruit of sacred wedlock or the unwelcome consequence of sin. Let us also remember that the love of real parents, even very faulty ones, is a precious possession to children, difficult to supply when lost. It is touching to see the strong family feeling which exists between persons of the same blood after separations and drawbacks which would seem destructive of it; and these family ties should always be sacredly preserved, unless the danger is too great of corrupting the young and innocent.

Having then established our first proposition, that parental ties should always be preserved when practicable, for the good of parents, children, and society, we may next consider what should be done with deserted infants and children for whom society has no other resource than to supply the parent's place. When we seek to supply a natural want, we must study the process of nature and see how she works, or rather, to speak more reverently, let us see how the all-wise Father has ordered this wonderful creation, and how he has adapted the means to the ends in all his works. The helpless babe, who is dependent on self-sacrificing love and care for its sustenance, is endowed with attractive graces which appeal to the heart of every true woman. Its innocent smiles and cooings, its plaintive cries, touch the maternal heart, and inspire the desire to embrace it, to caress it, to hold it in arms, and cause pain to the mother if separated from it. No artificial system of herding young human creatures in large numbers can be safely substituted for the individual care and tending which are essential to infant life. The terrible death-rate in

most foundling hospitals is not so much owing, in my opinion, to the massing together of too many children as to the want of tending. Children who are nursed and tended often thrive wonderfully in the crowded tenements of the poor. Infants deprived of their natural nourishment often, too, thrive well, when reared by a careful woman who can devote herself to one child. The infant not only gets the animal warmth it needs by contact with its nurse, but frequent change of position and exercise, which it can only have when held in arms. A very ignorant and hard-worked mother will indulge her natural affection in frequent tendings of her infant child. Then, too, in an ordinary family, the father will avail himself of his leisure moments to caress and carry about his child, and the older brothers and sisters will give the little one change of position and exercise. All these facilities for the baby's amusement and exercise are wanting in the machine care of a foundling hospital. There, the infants pass most of their time in cribs, deprived of animal heat which contact with a nurse would afford, their muscles enfeebled by want of exercise, their nerves irritated and wearied by monotony.

Last year, I made a careful inspection of a Catholic infant asylum near Boston, where the State board had placed several infants; but as every one who went there at an early age soon died, while the same class thrived well in the Massachusetts Infant Asylum or in private families, it was found necessary to discontinue sending infants there. Our medical officers had made visits to the asylum, and had reported that, in their opinion, the mortality was due to overcrowding. I found the asylum to be a clean, airy building, admirably situated on high ground, near the sea, with good sanitary arrangements as to plumbing, heating, and ventilation. It was in charge of several nuns, or "sisters," who seemed intelligent and very pleasing in appearance, and whose only possible object in their diligent and unremunerated labor must have been to benefit their charges. My visit was unexpected. I was received with courtesy, and permitted to examine the children and the premises thoroughly. The babies, about twenty in number, were nearly all lying in little cribs, which were placed in rows in a large room, with just space enough to pass between them. All were clean, the food, nursing-bottles, and clothing suitable. Two women nurses, not "sisters," were holding infants; but from the questions answered, and from the number of persons employed, I was convinced that very little time was passed by any child outside of its crib, and that this was the chief cause of mortality. In a small room, I found five infants apparently near death; and I could readily per-

ceive that a good many others were declining, and not likely to survive long under present conditions. In another part of the building were a dozen or more little children, who were able to walk or run about. These looked fairly well, some of them very well; but most of them had come into the asylum when the critical age of infancy had passed. It is the first year of life which requires the tender care and much attention which is so necessary to preserve life. We know that very dirty, ill-managed babies do generally live and are healthy, when they get the motherly brooding and tending which even a hen knows her chicks need. So we must infer that the lack of it is a chief cause of infant mortality in infant asylums.

The Massachusetts Infant Asylum, at Jamaica Plain, near Boston, is owned and managed by a private corporation. The managers are men and women of the highest character and social standing. It was founded in 1868, and has received up to the date of its last report over fourteen hundred infants. It has been largely endowed by private benevolence, and owns real estate to the value of about \$45,000, and stocks and investments worth about \$43,000; has an income of about \$2,500 from investments and annual subscriptions, and gifts amounting to over \$2,000. A small sum, \$600 or \$700 per annum, is also received from the mothers of a few infants boarded at the asylum. Its largest income, however, is derived from the State, for the board of motherless or deserted infants, who, in the phraseology of the statute, "have no known settlement in the Commonwealth." From \$12,000 to \$15,000, or more, has been paid annually for the maintenance of such infants, at the rate of \$4 per week each. These infants are not, however, kept in the asylum as a rule, but are boarded out in private families, one or two in a place, under careful visitation by the managers, the asylum being a central depot for their reception and distribution. It is also a place of special treatment for the feeble ones who require the advantage of wet nursing and skilful medical care. About ten or twelve healthy young women, with their infants, are employed in the asylum, each of whom nurses her own and a foster child, under the care of the excellent matrons who are in charge of the institution. The death-rate here in long past years was very high, until the managers learned by experience to scatter the children, and to give each baby a mother in effect. Their success has been excellent under present methods; and they have also benefited many unmarried mothers and deserted wives, who have been the wet nurses. The long-continued labors of some of the best and most cultivated men and women in

our State have, in the management of this institution, preserved the lives of many hundreds of infants, and provided them with permanent homes by adoption. These good people, too, have solved the problem of the best method of management, and have greatly aided the State in the performance of official duty. One step leads to another; and, as the world progresses, new methods are developed in charity, each generation profiting by the experience of the former ones.

As the Massachusetts Infant Asylum could not provide for all the foundlings and "unsettled infants" in the State, it was necessary for further provision to be made by the Board of State Charities. At first, foundlings were maintained at the State Almshouse at Tewksbury; but the death-rate there of motherless infants was so high as to make it imperative to provide a better method of care. The death-rate, however, at Tewksbury, was not greater than in foundling hospitals generally, and was due to the same causes,—overcrowding and the want of mothering; for infants at the same place with their mothers did well. The plan of the Massachusetts Infant Asylum, of boarding out in families, was adopted by the State, and is continued by the present Board of Health, Lunacy, and Charity, which was established in 1879, in place of the old Board of State Charities. The board had the disadvantage of dealing with the infants whom the asylum rejected, because they were too feeble or diseased to be proper subjects for their care, in their opinion. But, of these least promising infants, the board saved about sixty per cent. The infants, who are placed directly in families by the board, through its agents in the "department of out-door poor," are visited by two medical officers, a man and a woman. They are usually placed in country neighborhoods and in carefully selected families. The price paid for board is usually about \$10 per month. It will be seen that there is a great saving on the cost of care in the infant asylum, who require \$4 per week for each child. As the infant asylum pursues the same method as to boarding out that the board does, and indeed first adopted it, it has been the latest policy of the board to take more and more into its own hands the care of its children; and the excellent success achieved has warranted the economy practised. The extra expense of the asylum is, of course, owing to maintaining the institution itself, as a place for treating with more care the feeble children.

A comparison of results shows that the direct placing in families of infants, even sickly ones, without the aid of the asylum, has been attended with excellent success on the part of the State's agents.

Under new State laws, enacted upon the board's recommendation, other children have, during the past few years, been boarded in families, with good results. During the year ending Sept. 30, 1884, one hundred and thirty-five children under three years old, and ninety-nine over three, and usually under eight years, were boarded in families by the State. For the quarter ending Dec. 30, 1884, their cost of support was \$8,200, or at the rate of \$32,000 per annum, or \$140 per capita per annum. This is as great as the cost of maintaining a large institution; but with this great economy, that the expense of buildings, land, and furniture, with repairs and general appliances, is saved. The result is a still greater saving; for these children become at an early age incorporated into the natural life of a community, are frequently adopted by those persons who have had charge of them, or their neighbors, and are capable of self-support at a younger age than if trained in an institution.

A trustee of the State Primary and Reform Schools, Miss Putnam, whose name is well known to the members of this Conference, last summer visited over fifty of the State children over three years of age boarded in families, the visitation occupying several days. Her detailed report to her board was extremely interesting and instructive. The sum and substance of it was that she found the homes well selected, being for the most part respectable farmers' families, the children well and happy without exception, and living a natural life, learning by the every-day household occupations to be useful and helpful. They attended the district schools, and the churches and Sunday-schools with the families. They were recognized members of the communities in which they were placed, acquiring friends, and making a place for themselves in the future. They were maintained, well clothed, and instructed at about seven per cent. less than the cost of a child in the State Primary School, exclusive of the cost of land and buildings.

The boarding out of children in families by overseers of the poor of towns is required by statute. It is, however, a law generally disobeyed.

In the city of Springfield, the influence of the Union Relief Association and its branch, the Children's Aid Society, has led to the placing in families of all dependent children supported by the city. Only a few infants with their mothers are in the almshouse. This system, now practised for six years, has not only proved highly beneficial to the children, but a financial saving. The children, who formerly ran wild in the almshouse, exposed to evil influences from adult

paupers, now are reared in orderly and virtuous families. We find every little while children born of vicious and intemperate parents growing up in childish innocence and intelligence in most respectable homes, beloved and cherished and likely to be first-rate men and women. Indeed, the success has been greater than the most sanguine advocates of the system anticipated.

Let me add in closing: There is no "royal road" to learning, it has been said. Knowledge comes by seeking and patient effort. There is no patent machine for the elevation of humanity, no self-working system of charity. The farmer does not expect, when he sows his seed, to finish his labors with that act. He must prepare the soil and nurture the springing plant with care. The good work of training young humanity physically and morally cannot be intrusted to hireling hands. The "boarding out" and "placing out" of infants and children in Massachusetts owes its success to the co-operation of volunteer and unpaid workers with public officials. The minor wards of the State, it is true, are under the charge of paid officials; but these officials themselves are appointed by and directed by an unpaid board of citizens, whose duties are arduous, whose responsibilities are heavy, who are exposed to severe and sometimes malicious public criticism. The paid official visitors are aided in every county by what are termed "auxiliary visitors," unpaid, local residents, women selected for their high standing and well-known benevolence. Frequent consultations among these visitors promote intelligent and conscientious work; and all are under strict rules, subject to the head of the department at the State House, an officer of the Board of Health, Lunacy, and Charity. Thus far, our State charities have been kept free from political entanglements. Rash and unscrupulous men in office on the State boards of charity, and of trustees of State institutions, could easily degrade the whole charitable system into a political machine, as has been done in other States. Massachusetts has recently had a narrow escape from this danger. Sir Arthur Helps says in his book on government (I quote from memory) "that a people will always have as good a government as it is capable of having." This I fully believe, and that our great danger as a people is of a lowered public standard of official integrity and ability. So, too, as to our public charities, overseers of the poor and State officials will readily adapt themselves to public requirements. Women are specially qualified to examine into methods of poor relief in their own communities. What women demand in the line of public charity men will provide. Women have already

done much in this way,—notably, in England and in the State of New York, where great reforms have been wrought by women. It was Mrs. Nassau Senior's able report to Parliament on the condition of workhouse children which led to the wide and successful boarding-out system now in vogue in England. It is through the energetic efforts of Miss Louisa Schuyler, herself a delicate invalid, that the great State Charities Aid Association of New York exists. Thousands of women, a few famous, many equally useful unknown, have labored to relieve and elevate the unfortunate in all countries. But the workers are too few. Too many women, and men, too, are content to lead lives of ease, satisfied that they are doing well if they harm no one and perform an occasional kindly act. But there is a cry for help on every side in our land, which is the refuge of the oppressed of all countries. We cannot safely stand aloof from the work to be done for our ignorant and helpless fellow-creatures. The most fruitful work is child-saving, and not less home-saving, the cherishing of natural affections, the preservation of natural ties. The strongest nation is one where the love of home is strongest. Every benevolent effort to purify and strengthen home-life is well directed, and the love of home and friends will be conducive to the love of God and of the heavenly home.

THE SHADY SIDE OF THE "PLACING-OUT SYSTEM."

BY LYMAN P. ALDEN, SUPERINTENDENT ROSE ORPHAN HOME,

(LATE SUPERINTENDENT MICHIGAN STATE PUBLIC SCHOOL).

It is very popular just now to advocate the placing of destitute children in families as rapidly as possible, instead of retaining them in institutions for any length of time. The advocates of this system seem to think that almost any home for a poor child is better than an institution. They would use the institution, not as a training school, like that admirable institution under Captain Pratt at Carlisle, Pa., but merely as an intelligence office; or, as was expressed by a Milwaukee paper last winter when the establishment of a State Public School in Wisconsin was under discussion, as "a temporary place of detention, where families may find children massed for their choice, and where the average time of detention for dependent children, and children whose surroundings have been bad, should be limited to

three months." In the imaginations of these, the humblest country home has been glorified into a child-saving instrument of wonderful efficiency; and to put a wayward street Arab into one of these homes is nearly equivalent to saving it. Even ninety-eight per cent. of such children, it is sometimes claimed, are so saved,—a much higher per cent., by the way, than respectable, well-to-do families can show among their own children.

When such views obtain, may it not be well to ask whether, in shunning the Charybdis of institutional life, there is not great danger of falling into Scylla?

Two things have been broadly asserted, which I propose to notice:

1. That good homes can readily be found for every homeless child; and

2. That a family, however humble it be, is the best place for every homeless child.

If these postulates are true, the logical sequence would be that no more institutions should be established for destitute children, and that those already in existence should be converted to some other uses. A few plain houses of reception, located in convenient places in each State, where the children could be gathered together, cleansed and reclothed, previous to being transferred to the homes that suitable agents had found in advance, would be all that would be necessary. It would be a farce to erect and maintain costly establishments, fitted up with kindergartens, school-rooms, chapels, etc., as many of the advocates of this system are doing, since the children would derive no benefit from them. But is there not an error in the premises? Can good homes be found so readily? and, if so, is it best to place every child in a family as soon as a home can be found? It remains yet to be proven that really good homes can be found as easily as is claimed. Not that there are no such homes, nor that good families cannot readily be found to take all the attractive and good little children; but, unfortunately, this constitutes only a small part of the whole number who find their way to children's homes. The great majority are not particularly attractive in appearance, and, when first gathered from the streets and slumholes of society, have such habits that, as a rule, the best families do not care to assume the responsibility and risk of taking them into their homes. There are many exceptions to this, of course; and, perhaps with great care, more could be found who, believing in the value of every human soul, for the sake of the great Master would be willing to undertake the charge. But such families cannot be found by the wholesale.

It is well known by all who have had charge of the binding out of children that the great majority of those who apply for children over nine years old are looking for cheap help; and while many, even of this class, treat their apprentices with fairness, and furnish them a comfortable home, a much larger number of applicants do not intend to pay a *quid pro quo*, but expect to make a handsome profit on the child's services, and, if allowed one, will evade, as far as possible, every clause in the contract,—furnishing poor food, shoddy clothing, work the child beyond its strength, send it to school but a few months, and that irregularly, and sometimes treat it with personal cruelty, though this, in a thickly settled country, is not likely to occur so frequently. I could fill this paper with instances in proof of this that have come under my personal observation, in an experience of eight years as superintendent of the Michigan State Public School. These people can always get good indorsements. That my experience may not appear singular, I have taken considerable pains, by correspondence and otherwise, to ascertain the views of old and successful workers in this field, in the East and West; and I find remarkable unanimity of opinion on this point, so far as I have investigated.

Miss Susan Fenimore Cooper, of Cooperstown, N.Y., whose labors for poor children are distinguished, and make her an authority, says:—

Our chief difficulty lies with the families who receive the children when they leave us. In many instances, very respectable people, who have brought the best of references, seem to have no judgment in training children. They are careless of the child's best interests, allow it to associate with evil companions, to run wild, and to read pernicious books and papers.

Mrs. Virginia Ohr, for about fifteen years superintendent of the Illinois Soldiers' and Sailors' Orphans' Home, says:—

Our experience in placing children in homes is very unsatisfactory. I find that the greater number of applicants for children have no other aim in view than to secure cheap help.

Says the committee for placing out children, of the Cleveland Protestant Orphan Asylum, "The larger proportion of homes offered we are compelled to decline." Mrs. Mary E. Cobb, superintendent of the Wisconsin Girls' Industrial School, and one of the most experienced and successful workers in this country, says, "Many more must be rejected than accepted, even when the applications come indorsed according to the strictest rule."

Says A. H. Fetterolf, President of Girard College for Orphan

Boys: "Our experience with farmers has not been satisfactory. They are not considerate for the child's welfare, caring only to use him for their profit."

S. W. Pierce, for eighteen years superintendent of the Iowa Soldiers' Orphan Home and Home for Indigent Children, says, "The average family with us wants a child for what they can get out of it in the way of work."

Says Rev. E. Wright, of Normal, Ill., agent for the New York Juvenile Asylum, which during the past thirty years has placed out in Illinois, with the greatest possible care, 4,285 children:—

The beneficence of an apprenticing agency is not attested by the number of children which it disposes of. It is not quantity, but quality, that determines the real excellence of its work. It would be an easy matter for us to place a thousand children annually in homes, in the Western States, if nothing more than that were required. But, of all the outrages that have been perpetrated in the name of Christian charity, none is more reprehensible than that of leaving helpless children without recourse in such situations. That this is not an extravagant assertion could be proved from the experience of this agency during almost any single week of its history.

Now, all this does not prove, nor is it intended to prove, that many good homes cannot be found for children, if proper care is taken. I know that thousands of such homes have been found, where the children are treated with affectionate consideration. But it does prove, I think, that the great majority of those who apply for children should never have them, and that great caution and discrimination should be used in selecting homes. It does prove that, if institutional care for children, where specialists are employed, who are constantly under the eye of the public and of official boards and visiting committees, is not so perfect as it should be, it is still more difficult to secure uniformly wise and kind treatment of children where they are placed in so many different families, scattered, perhaps, all over a State, which, with the best system of supervision practicable, cannot be visited, usually, oftener than once in each year. It does prove that a glamour has been thrown over the work of placing out children, which should be dispelled. It takes something more than a farm of a hundred and sixty acres and well-filled granaries to constitute a good home. There may be all of these, and yet the elements of a good home be entirely wanting. The man may be vulgar, profane, intemperate, penurious, or tyrannical. Or the mistress may be slovenly, sickly, peevish, and an eternal scold. Or, if the parents are all right, there may be disagreeable, overbearing, hateful chil-

dren; and a child placed in such a home would be living in the antipodes of a heaven on earth, while those who bound it out might complacently imagine that its life was a happy one.

But, admitting that fairly good homes, as they average in the country, can be found as fast as has been claimed, is it best that all children should be placed, even in such homes, as fast as they become dependent upon the public? There is no question that a good family is the most natural and the best place for men and women, as well as for children, as a rule. But it is not the best place for all. There are many exceptions to the rule. The interests of the individual and of society require that the insane shall be sent to insane asylums, where they can receive that care and special treatment which no home could furnish. It is better that the deaf and dumb, the blind and feeble-minded, should be placed in institutions especially adapted to their wants, at least for a few years, where all that are susceptible of improvement may be fitted for the work of life.

But there is a class, also, morally defective. The great majority of all the children thrown upon the public for support are from the lower stratum of society. They have inherited tendencies to wrongdoing more or less marked, or have acquired habits, through neglect and a bad environment, that unfit them to enter a respectable family, especially when there are children. If sent out at once, they are soon returned; or, if they remain, the probability is that these bad habits will cling to them and grow stronger. Before being sent out to homes, they need something more than a change of clothes and a good bath.

Skilful training and considerable time are necessary to eradicate these habits and build up a new character. If the ordinary family is unable to cope with physical ailments, how much less is it able to cope with vastly more complicated moral maladies! Some of these children are too far gone to be reached either by institutional or home training. But it would be utter folly to send them out to homes. They are practically insane, and should be treated as such. Happily, this class is not large. But there is a large number who, though peculiarities of disposition as well as bad habits unfit them, at first, to go out to homes, can be and have been so trained, in well-conducted institutions, that later they can be sent out with considerable probability of doing well. This change cannot be effected in three months, however, by any patent process yet invented. Time is a very important element. I can say that, while I have seen many bad children converted by institutional training into good children,

and many children, who were obedient, orderly, and easily controlled in the institution, fall from grace after being placed in families, I do not remember a single instance where, after a patient and long-continued effort to save a child by institutional training without success, it was improved by being put in a family, although the experiment was frequently tried. I will mention one striking case out of many. A girl of very peculiar disposition, having a temper at times almost uncontrollable, had been placed in several homes previous to being sent to the Michigan State School in 1875. During the first two years after her admission to that institution, she was placed in quite a number of homes, from all of which she was returned, after brief trials, as incorrigible. She was then retained in the institution for several years; and, under steady and firm but kind treatment, she had so far improved that it was thought advisable to find her a home, where at the age of twenty-two she still remained, giving very great satisfaction to the family and being highly respected. I am firmly of the opinion that the same family would have returned her to the school, had she been sent out one year earlier.

A large percentage of the children admitted to the Michigan State School, over ten years old, had been placed in one or more families without success, and with no improvement on their part.

Says the Cleveland Protestant Orphan Home, in its report for 1883:—

Prior to the placing of nearly all our children, a careful preparatory work must be done, untidy, thriftless habits must be broken up, obedience to authority must become a habit, listless, contented idleness must be driven out by an ambition to excel in school and work, lax notions of integrity and truth must be supplanted by that self-respect and fear of God which are the basis of all future improvement in character.

It is very evident that all this cannot be done in three months or one year even.

Mrs. Cobb says: "There is in many of our wards something that calls for different, if not stronger, influences and restraints than those of the ordinary family circle; and these are by no means the most hopeless charges. . . . Disorders exist in many as far beyond reach of the average home-makers to correct as is a complicated physical disease beyond the treatment of one who has not studied medical science. The taint which a life with paupers, deceitful and diseased vagrants, and conscienceless criminals has imparted, must be eradicated before children are fitted for home-life. When this is

done, as we know it can be, and has been in multitudes of cases, some of the sweetest and most promising children appear."

The Rev. E. Wright seems to think that children who have been only one year in the New York Juvenile Asylum previous to being sent out West do not succeed so well as those who had received longer training. He says, "This comparison of statistics shows that a larger proportion of demoralized children and a shorter period of detention in the asylum have been followed by an increase in the volume of work devolved upon this agency, and by less satisfactory results."

The superintendent of the New York Juvenile Asylum, as quoted by the Hon. William P. Letchworth, on page 297 of "Homes of Homeless Children," says, "As a rule, private families cannot manage demoralized children; and it is better economy to detain them for a while in efficient training schools than to consign them to an apprenticing agency, with their evil habits and propensities uncured."

President A. H. Fetterolf, of Girard College, says: "We send our children out between the ages of fourteen and eighteen. . . . While I have no statistics on hand, judging from what I see of our graduates, I am inclined to think that they do better in life than the same number of boys picked from the public schools. If you can give your children industrial training as well as a good English education, you will undoubtedly do better by them by keeping them until they are able to earn their own living. This is what a kind and judicious parent would do; and why not those who, under Providence, stand in the parent's stead?"

Miss Susan Fenimore Cooper says: "The lasting good of every child intrusted to us is the object we have in view, and this may be more successfully brought about by keeping the children longer in the Orphanage instead of hurrying them off to private houses. Such, at least, is my experience."

My space will not allow me to quote further from the testimony of those who have had great experience for many years in this work, and who have observed the results of institutional training for this class of children as compared with that of the average family; but much more of a similar character could be introduced.

Such children, placed out too soon, are liable to be returned to the institution in a short time, from which they are again sent out to be again returned; and so the child continues to be tossed back and forth like a shuttlecock, learning nothing of value, losing in the mean time all self-respect and hope, and verifying the old adage, "A roll-

ing stone gathers no moss." The child begins its career dependent upon the public, ignorant, and with proclivities to wrong-doing more or less developed, and ends, after ten or fifteen years, where he began, only more strongly confirmed in wrong-doing; and those who have been working for him find that they have worked in a circle.

Two objections are made against retaining children in institutions for any length of time, which I will briefly notice. The first is that there is no natural home-life,—nothing to develop the affections and make it happy; and those who hold such views are greatly surprised when they see an institutional child laugh and play. There are, doubtless, some institutions where this objection could be urged with some force; but there are many others, particularly those conducted on the cottage plan, where nearly all the elements of a first-class Christian home are present. Pictures, picture-books, toys, dolls, games, swings, teeters, hoops, balls, music, lectures, exhibitions, presents, parties, schools, labor, Sunday-schools, family worship, and motherly kindness are all part of a well-equipped institution; and the children can be—and, as a rule, are—very happy.

The second charge is just the opposite, and is that children are so pampered in institutions, have so much done for them, are so much more comfortably provided for than they will be in country homes, and are so kindly and rationally treated that they become, after a few years, so attached to their home and friends that it is finally hard to separate them. This, I suppose, is what is often meant by *institutionizing* children.

But do parents fear to treat their own children with kindness, and make their homes as barren and unattractive as possible, lest they should become *familyised*, and unfitted to go out into the world and take care of themselves? Are they anxious to push their own children out into the world before they are twelve years old, lest they should be spoiled by indulgence? Do they not feel, rather, that a happy childhood is a good background for the child to look back upon all through life, and that such a childhood will strengthen its faith in God and fit it better for coping with the temptations and trials through which it must pass? And so they are tenderly cared for and schooled until the time comes, as it always will, when they wish to try their own wings and strike out for themselves. Yet comparatively few of these parents are able to do pecuniarily, for their children, when they leave home, more than the institution can do for its wards. Nor are such children as well prepared, in some respects, for roughing it in the world as are the children trained in institutions

for a number of years, who have become accustomed to regular habits of rising and labor, and who have suffered many deprivations earlier in life. My observation has convinced me that, however pleasant their surroundings may be in the institution, and however much they may become attached to their home and those who care for them, most of these children, at from fourteen to seventeen years of age, desire a wider scope for the exercise of their powers than most institutions can furnish; and the broad world with all its possibilities draws them toward it.

That I may not be understood as being entirely opposed to placing children in families, the following summary of my views at this stage of experience is herewith appended:—

1. All children of proper habits should be placed out by *adoption* as rapidly as carefully selected homes can be found for them, unless it is probable that near relatives of respectability will, in a reasonable length of time, be able to provide for them.

2. Children of bad habits should be retained in the institution until a marked improvement is apparent.

3. As a general rule, though there are exceptions, it is better that children should not be apprenticed until they have the elements of a plain English education, sufficient to enable them to write a respectable letter, to read a newspaper intelligently, and to understand some of the first rules of arithmetic. They will then be abreast the children of about the same age in the country schools, and will derive some benefit from the three or four months of winter schooling, which is all, with few exceptions, that indentured children are allowed. But, if sent out before the primary branches have been acquired, the child is unable to keep along with the advanced classes of the winter schools, is mortified at being behind his fellows, gets discouraged, does not wish to attend school,—his master often is quite willing to indulge him, in order to secure his help on the farm,—and he grows up into an ignorant man.

4. Great care should be taken in apprenticing children that the home is adapted to the child, and the child to the home; and any mistakes that may be made in this regard should be corrected as soon as possible. The good of the child and not the convenience of the applicant should be the first consideration.

5. Apprenticed children should be visited at least once each year, and as much oftener as may be necessary. And all children should be promptly removed, whose interests require it.

6. Children should be bound out not longer than till eighteen

years of age. No law but the law of love will hold them longer ; and, at that age, they are competent to decide for themselves whether the home is a good one. Besides, their masters are more likely to treat them with consideration, and offer them inducements to remain. *As a matter of fact, of all those bound out till twenty-one, very few remain even till eighteen years of age.*

THE WORK OF THE TEMPORARY HOMES AND OF FINDING HOMES FOR CHILDREN IN CONNECTICUT.

BY VIRGINIA T. SMITH,

HARTFORD, CONN.

It must not be for one moment supposed that I have prepared a paper with an intention of meeting the arguments of those opposed to my views of placing children in homes. I simply give an honest statement of nine years of experience in a local charity, and an additional statement of the work of our new law for children in Connecticut, which has been in operation only between one and two years.

In the length of time referred to, I have placed nearly four hundred children in good family homes ; and, in that whole time, not so many as I can count on the fingers of my two hands have been returned to me, although we seldom, almost never, place children by indenture.

The children are either adopted or placed on trial ; if they are returned to us, new homes are found for them.

In 1876, nearly nine years ago, I assumed the public city mission work of Hartford. In due time, and before I had been at my post three months, occasional waifs or strays — and by them I mean children abandoned by their parents, guardians, or natural protectors, and frequently the children of drunkards and prisoners — began to claim some part of my attention. I could not feel satisfied with simply learning their story, providing for their immediate wants, and dismissing their cases from my thought. I felt deeply a certain responsibility for their future, and therefore felt that, when I could *claim* the care of one of them, I ought to be so situated as to accept that care. Accordingly, I desired to use a part of the voluntary

contributions which I received in some satisfactory provision for this special class of beneficiaries. Permission being granted, I hired a comfortable tenement of a few rooms, to which was attached a pleasant yard, and paid a woman, who loved little children, to care for the helpless little wanderers whom she was liable to receive at any hour of the day or night. That *one* temporary home, humble and inexpensive as it was, and used only in connection with the city mission work of Hartford, in six years and a half took to its sheltering care, from all sorts of miserable surroundings, two hundred and thirty-seven children, more than half of whom were placed in good family homes, where, according to our latest knowledge of them, they still remain. The home was at no time overcrowded; and, during that period of more than six years, we lost by death but seven children, all of whom were less than one year old.

As I visited now and then the almshouses of our county, and saw the children being reared among the inevitably demoralizing influences that there prevailed; as I visited the slums of my own city also, and saw unfortunate children living in the most desolate poverty and neglect,—my soul was stirred within me, not only in a desire to relieve their distresses, but with a strong determination to change their entire conditions,—to brighten their lives, and to be able to secure to them the proper opportunities to become good men and women, by the good example, affectionate teachings, and tender personal care that they might receive in well-selected family homes.

I studied this matter night and day, and said to myself, with an increasing conviction of the correctness of my premises, that, if this plan of finding homes by providing a temporary home could work so well and show such grand results as had our local charity in a comparatively small city, what could it *not* do as a State provision for children needing its opportunities!

Urged on, moreover, by my increasing knowledge of the sufferings of these children, which finally became to me as my own sufferings, and made strong by the sympathy and co-operation of those interested in this question, it was determined that we take a more public step. I had asked the board of a local charity to provide a home for dependent and neglected children, and was not refused,—yea, instead, we were cheered and blessed by the work it had already accomplished; and now we would go further, and ask greater things. We would ask the General Assembly that represented our State to give temporary homes or shelters for the protection of its most helpless class, its dependent children, until other provision could be

made; that is, until, as a rule, family homes could be found into which they could go and live. Is not a home the God-given right of every child? Denied that right, how slow its advancement in the proper formation of character! None of us can realize what homes and home ties have done for us, perhaps because they come like other indispensable blessings of life, so freely and naturally that we forget to be specially grateful for them; but, when we feel for our own children that love which we accepted as our right, we recognize both its power and value. How we welcome our children to the best there is in our hearts and homes! How we invest our whole natures in them, and hang our hopes unlimitedly and unconsciously upon them! How we rejoice in their growth and development, and how blissful the days that bring them joy and blessing! How we spend ourselves like water in their illnesses, and how no beauty dawns in any day that witnesses their sorrow and distress! How, living, they are our world, and how, dying, they become our inspiration, and among the chief beatitudes of the heaven we hope for! How the precious memories and hopes that abide with us are secret springs to earnest action, and a daily consecration of time and powers for those children whose pitiful faces and wretched lives make mighty appeal to the tendernesses within us! Moved by the love we all bear for our children yet on earth and by that same love which, passing with those precious ones into the eternal country, became a part of their immortality, so that we can never again be altogether mortal; warmed through all our nature with the tenderness of this world and with radiations from the world to come,—how can we fail to work unceasingly and to our utmost to give neglected children the homes and friends they need!

The first step in the new work we took one morning three years ago last January, determining to see what might be accomplished. To a paper drawn by Henry E. Burton, Esq., containing a short petition to the General Assembly then convened, asking that a law might be enacted to prevent the further retaining or placing of children in almshouses, we secured some thirty representative signatures, and carried the petition to the capitol, praying the legislature to make it a legal measure.

Our wishes did not prevail; but, instead, a commission of five persons was appointed to inquire into the numbers of children in almshouses, and also into the numbers and condition of neglected, dependent, or abused children in the State, or of the towns thereof, or who should be otherwise cared for than at that present time, and

to report to the next General Assembly such facts and statistics as it might obtain, and to suggest, by bill or otherwise, such legislation, if any, as it might deem necessary or desirable to ameliorate the condition of such children.

Pending the appointment of this commission there was much discussion of this question at the capitol. Some few opponents appeared before the committee, to strangle the measure in its incipency, declaring this petition would seem to indicate that our laws and charitable agencies were insufficient to rescue and provide for the neglected children within the borders of our State, while we already had all the legislation that was necessary or desirable. They declared that all that was required for immediate relief was to interpret and administer existing laws in the interest of humanity, and all would be well. They did not touch upon the evils of almshouse life for children, but said, in referring to almshouses, that they were not bad places for children, and that many might be much worse off than to be in them.

Doubtless there were many who listened to these statements who did not know how sadly additional legislation was needed to provide for children living in vicious surroundings, not only to enable them to be removed from such homes and surroundings, but to be judiciously cared for when thus removed, until good homes could be found. And, doubtless, there were many people in our State interested and intelligent upon most subjects pertaining to it, who did not know that at that time there was no place for pauper children, or those who were taken from homes of vice and neglect, but the almshouses and the State's reformatory schools.

Any one at all familiar with almshouse life for children would realize the great mistake of those arguing in their favor. One who has at all studied the facts knows that foundlings and deserted infants can hardly get a hold on life in them, as they are of necessity consigned to the care of utterly irresponsible persons, and almost invariably die before they have outlived babyhood. And, for older children, the almshouses are even more to be dreaded; for their associations are demoralizing, and not adapted to the proper development of a child's mental or moral powers or affections. There are no avenues in almshouses by which children can reach out to family ties or neighborhood inheritances, which ties and inheritances are frequently so enduring and valuable.

It is seen over and over again that children placed in ordinary families, with virtuous example and good surroundings, are every

way superior, in a short time, to children reared in poorhouses or institutions.

We were also met by the statement that the industrial and reform schools were suited to this work, and, therefore, the children should be sent there. In reply, we said that any one looking carefully into the needs of children knows that, while our Connecticut reformatory schools kindly open their doors to the delinquent, incorrigible, and vicious classes, and are blessed institutions for those needing them, — we know of no better anywhere, — they should not be asked to do a work for these children who do not need their discipline. Neither is it humane to provide for this class of children in those places. Juvenile offenders are most judiciously cared for in them; but why should unoffending children be placed there simply because they are friendless and neglected, and because there is no other place for them? It must be conceded that it seems a blight upon a child's character to be thus placed. It cannot be otherwise, when, to become eligible to enter it, one must be duly arrested and committed thereto by law. Yet, notwithstanding these schools are not in the least intended for the class of children in question, their protection and privileges have been eagerly sought, in the absence of more satisfactory provision, by many engaged in philanthropic work, who, standing between the child and its brutal parent, are thankful indeed that any place will receive and any existing law protect the unfortunate little sufferer, whose continuance in the vile and squalid life in which it was being reared would be its sure destruction.

It was plain to thoughtful people that the almshouses were not the places for these children; and, as to the second query, we say, Let each person ask himself if he would be willing that his child, friendless and unoffending, should be placed in a school the entrance to which subjects it to the terror of arrest and the sentence of a judge, and to the subsequent commingling, even though it be in the most restrained way, with those children who are refractory and depraved? Should we not bless the friendly hand that would mercifully avert such necessity, and place our child in a home where it could receive, as much as possible, a mother's love, and the affection and personal sympathy of the family?

But, we explained, the ordinary difficulties of so placing a child have not yet been thoroughly met. Any child so placed, without the special sanction and guardianship of the law, is never sure of its home. It is subject to the desire or caprice of its parents, and can by them be removed at any time, and returned to the dark life from

which it has been laboriously and temporarily rescued. What then, we asked, shall we do with these children who, unless dealt by with the utmost discretion, must inevitably increase our pauper and criminal classes?

Does any one claim, we inquired, who has studied and worked at this problem, that family ties shall never be sundered? We beg he will look further into this subject before he so decides. Those who feel that the home-life is the only proper life for a child, and who will go further and work harder, that a child may not be defrauded of its childhood's rights and privileges, than for almost any other human or Christian charity, have not so decided. They believe that too much power has been accorded the parent, while the rights of the child have been correspondingly ignored. There can be no doubt that a child has rights that may become paramount to those of its parents, and that, in cases of sore abuse or injurious example by parents to their children, the latter should be unhesitatingly removed from their influence, and, if necessary, from their knowledge. But again were we inquired of, Pray, do you see very many children who really suffer in living with their parents? We think, said our inquirers,—remembering their children at home, who were dearer than life itself to them,—we think there is a great deal said just now about the misery and abuse of little children; but do you think very many such cases could be found, if one gave his whole time to the search? What experiences upon this point swarmed to my memory and my lips! How I longed to tell the story of the neglect, misery, and abuse visited upon helpless children of all ages; but no day would be long enough, no words would be strong enough, and no heart tender enough to tell their story.

But to return to the appointment of the commission. Notwithstanding all the discussion which the commission of inquiry excited, it went quietly forward and performed its work. It went into the almshouses of the State, and discovered nearly five hundred children in them. It went into cities, factory villages, boroughs, large farming districts, and isolated country towns. It inquired of clergymen, physicians, and school-teachers in the different towns as to the number of neglected and abused children of whom they had knowledge, and, lo! at the end of the year, an accumulation of knowledge, creating statistics that hardly seemed credible even to those seeking the information. The commission returned to the next General Assembly the fact that there were between four and five thousand children of the three classes mentioned — namely, dependent, neg-

lected, or abused children — in the State of Connecticut, that needed the State's special care and guardianship, and recommended additional legislation, making it lawful not only to rescue them from almshouses and vicious homes, but also to care for them in the best and most discreet manner, when once they were in the hands of those who would befriend them.

We felt that we needed no more large and expensive institutions in which to put them, as family life is the only life adapted to every neglected child who does not come under the class of a juvenile offender. I had felt for several years — in fact, nearly ever since I began to think at all on this matter — that God's plan for the children — family life in a home — is the only plan, and we need not presume to improve on his arrangement and his law. We recommended, therefore, in connection with our report to the General Assembly, that a temporary home be established in each county of the State, in which these children might at any time be placed, with a view to finding them good homes as soon as possible in desirable private families.

The bill was carefully weighed and measured by the Committee on Humane Institutions, and by them was recommended to the House, and passed both House and Senate almost unanimously. The law being passed, we thanked God and took courage; and, upon Jan. 1, 1884, each county had opened its Home, and was ready to begin the work.

At about the middle of December, 1883, there were hundreds of children nesting, for the winter at least, in the almshouses; but when, just before the 1st of January, the selectmen were notified that at New Year's the Temporary Home of their county would be opened for the reception of said children, some people, interested by ties of blood in these children, suddenly developed an unheard-of capacity to support them, showing that their neglect had been from sheer indolence and a willingness that their children should become paupers; and, in that and other ways, the almshouses were swiftly depopulated, while the Temporary Homes did not fill up at all in proportion. Numbers of the selectmen, however, were loyal to the law; and nearly two hundred and fifty children were placed in the Homes during the first year of their existence, and about fifty per cent. of that number were provided with permanent homes in private families, and consequently went off the pauper lists, and are no longer an expense to the towns which have previously supported them.

Appreciating our work, the correctional schools informed us of the

relief the "Homes" would be to their crowded ranks, stating that there were large numbers of children, both in the Reform and Industrial Schools, that never should have gone there.

At the end of the first year's work in the Temporary Homes, the friends of the enterprise hoped to be able to lay before the legislature some amendments, calculated to facilitate the growth of the work; but, already in advance of us, various petitions were laid before the Humane Committee, praying that a State institution might succeed the Temporary Homes. Foremost among the supporters of this plan of a State institution were the very people who, two years before, had declared that no additional legislation was necessary.

Now, they were possessed of a wise discernment and a deep concern for those children, which made it seem not especially essential that they should have homes, but necessary that a large State institution should be built, and the children shut into it.

The friends of the State institution admitted that the children would not probably be placed in families so soon from a State institution, but did not know as it *mattered* much if they did not have any family life for a few years. They urged that, in a State institution, they could be taught trades; and they believed it better to class these pauper children by themselves, giving them a school in their own building and a chapel for their service, than to think for a moment of tolerating them in the society of other children. On the other hand, the friends of the children considered the fact of a modest dwelling-house in each county of the State, for many reasons, a much more desirable provision than an enormous institution, in which children inevitably congregate until, by very numbers, they become demoralized. Even in the county Homes, the children make a beginning in both home and practical life. The size and appointments of these "Homes" are not greatly disproportionate to the houses into which they will naturally go to live. In these small Homes, both boys and girls can aid in doing the necessary work of the house and yard; while, in a State institution, they must be presided over by directors and supervisors, and a strict and almost martial discipline must be preserved, which is not only unnatural, but detrimental to the practical and affectional growth and development of any child. They can also go to the church in the town in which they live, to the Sunday-school and the roadside district school, thus mingling with people and other children, and learning their habits and manners.

It seemed also, to those practically engaged in finding homes for

these children, that the plan of their learning trades in the State institution was most impractical, as the elder children, being sought in largest numbers, would naturally be swept out of the institution; while those remaining would range in age from two to seven years, and would seem rather infantine material upon which to depend for apprentices in the different departments of mechanical labor.

The upshot and issue, then, of the petition for a State Home was to rivet the Temporary Homes more firmly in the affections of the people who believe in them, and to interest and convert many more to the work who had heretofore known little about it.

We, who are intensely interested in this work, have been gladdened in our inmost hearts by seeing many people in the different towns becoming friends of the "Homes"; and we feel it truly the beginning of the time when all the forces of true sympathy, right knowledge, virtue, and wise administration shall move in converging lines and with united purpose to the relief and rescue of the distressed children and to the succor of imperilled posterity.

In finding permanent homes for such children, no system of "placing out" will ever be successful that does not take into account the deepest needs of the child and the determination conscientiously to adapt the child to its place. Do not attempt to make a success of it by depending upon letters of recommendation concerning the parties who wish to secure a child. They are, generally, as unsubstantiable (unless the case has been officially investigated and approved) as the overdrawn recommendations of servants, which many ladies have learned to accept with due allowance.

Do not be anxious to secure homes of wealth or of excessive neatness or of any special or extraordinary appointments. Be sure, however, that you yourself, if possible, look into the eyes of the woman who is seeking the care of one of these neglected little ones, and do not decide to intrust her with that child, unless both heart and soul are mirrored there.

Remember, if you would not meet with unpleasant results and disheartening failures and thus go back to the belief that, after all, institution life may be the best life for these children, that the placing of a child in a true home is a task that requires prayer and direction as well as some natural adaptability to the work. It is a delicate transaction, and one which no bungler can ever wisely carry out. In this work, an ounce of affection is worth a ton of intellect. Finding that quality in the applicant, you may feel certain that sympathy and protection will willingly be given at the outset, which in time is sure to develop into the tenderest love.

And when, through your efforts, a child reaches a good home, and its pathetic wanderings cease for a period in the haven of quiet and rest and benediction that a good home always brings to a child, you can feel the satisfaction, than which nothing is sweeter, that you have tried to follow the example of the Teacher who took a little child and set it in the midst of the people, to illustrate the laws of the kingdom of God.

And you are to remember also that, unless you do so save the children from their distresses, they will grow up into lives of iniquity and crime and shame. Their sweet faces will grow coarse and hard with the brutalities they will learn to practise; and their hands will reach out into every immoral phase of life, and soil themselves hopelessly by the thousand impurities of the world. The dear, gentle eyes that fill with tears at unkindness now will by and by flame with the unrestrained fires of passion; and their happy, prattling tones will one day voice the maledictions of their sires.

Let us see to it, then, that the dependent, neglected, and abused children in all our States are *not* hindered from sharing the blessings so freely bestowed upon us as a people. Let not our slothfulness, our indifference, our cowardice, or our ignorance prevent us from working both individually and in unison, until every child has all the rights and privileges which we insure to our own.

METHODS OF INDUSTRIAL TRAINING FOR GIRLS.

BY LOUISE J. KIRKWOOD.

That the prevention of crime is better than the endeavor to cure it is the conclusion of the practical philanthropists of the day. So general is this belief that there is no argument needed to strengthen or uphold it; but, following close upon it, comes the question from all sides: "How prevent? How turn the tide of this swollen, surging, polluted stream, made up of the vagrant, crime-begirt portion of humanity?"

Though by no means allowing that the law-breakers and criminals are found only among the lower classes, one needs but to take a stand for one half-hour on a street corner in the densely populated portion of any of our large cities, and there watch the passing throng, and note the large proportion of beggarly, sin-seared forms

and faces, to be appalled by the force and volume of this stream of evil which sweeps through the lower strata of society.

If faith in the existence of any adequate remedy does not fail, one must be awakened to a sense of personal responsibility, and be impelled to seek a cure, some healing branch to cast upon the bitter waters.

The homes of the lowest and most degraded are not utterly devoid of human affection. Trampled on by the heel of intemperance or crime, its life may show but by the faintest glimmer; but still there is a glimmer in every habitation where there is a family of children, and the parents would fain place their offspring on a higher plane than they themselves occupy. But the desire is worthless while in their homes are not found the springs of thrift and industry, which must water the fields of prosperity and respectability. They themselves have stood in the market-places, and complainingly cried: "No man hath hired us," not perceiving, in their ignorance, that they bring nothing with them worth the hiring. Having never been taught, they do not seem to distinguish between the value of their worthless work and that of skilled labor.

With such parentage and surroundings, the child has no vantage-ground from which he may hope to reach a higher level than that to which he was born. The chances are all in favor of his going downward, without the arresting agency of the schools of industry, of which experience has proved the worth.

In a paper as brief as this must necessarily be, any full description of methods of instruction in such institutions cannot be given. There are circulars of information which are obtainable by those who need more definite knowledge on the subject; but, if the writer may be suffered to drop the impersonal tone, and tell in a simple manner what methods of industrial instruction are used in the *Wilson Industrial School for Girls* in New York City, with very happy results, it may go so far toward answering the question, "How?"

Our children come from garret and cellar tenement homes, in ages ranging from babyhood to girlhood of thirteen years. The day nursery, with its sunny influences, and the kindergarten begin the training. The school-room follows, with its steady inculcation of moral and religious principles and its cheerful hum of mental drill.

On the tender years of childhood — which, if we could, we would gladly surround only with what is bright and joyful — it is hard to lay the lines of labor; but a judgment wiser in its end than that of feeling, together with an apprehension of the fact that the necessity of

labor is already upon them, has led to an earnest study of the best methods of training up the children in the practice of the domestic arts, those which most nearly touch the home. The avenues of labor in these lines are not crowded: they are safe and eminently womanly pathways for our girls to follow. Into them, it should be the part of the wise counsellor to direct those who by birth and surroundings are peculiarly tempted to lives of vagrancy and crime.

With the spirit of Froebel going before, it has not been hard to follow in his footsteps, and help to turn the children's lessons into play, or rather bring the life and spirit of play into the lesson, and thus make it a thing to be enjoyed. There is nothing to be lost — indeed, everything is to be gained — by winning over the children to a love of work. It is not necessary to persuade a child into activity: it is the instinct of its nature to busy itself about something.

It was recognition of this fact, sympathy with child-nature, and appreciation of the yoke of poverty and toil under which she found the children of the *Wilson School*, which led the framer of the kitchen-garden system to seek out its pleasant lessons. The cold critical eyes of the ultra-practical, who would bind childhood, when found in poverty, down to drudgery, have seen in the kitchen-garden system only foolish play; but those who have a grain of apprehension of the teacher's art and the stronghold of her power have seen in it rare opportunities for giving the most thorough and practical instruction in household work. The same thing may also be said of the later developed but fully tested cooking-garden system, arranged by the same practical planner.

Sewing has not usually been a lesson of delight to little children; but there are ways of making it so, as has been abundantly shown. By following our simple plans of short hours, short seams, bright patches, easy rules, object lessons in hand practice, cheery, helpful words, and sprightly songs, a charm has been thrown around the use of the needle, and the child so fascinated with its possibilities that she becomes a mistress of its art, without tears or frowns or sighs. Step by step, she goes on in the A, B, C of stitches, until she reaches the pearly edge of the button-hole. With this, her triumph is complete, if she finds it squares to her song rule of "a twisted edge and a rim all pearly." Having accomplished the seams of the last grade of stitches, she is able to take up a garment with courage and confidence, and find it no hard task to fashion and finish it with neatness and completeness.

Thus, our children learn willingly, pleasantly, and none the less

thoroughly, because the rough edges of toil are not ever brought to the front and kept uppermost.

There are beguilements in pleasantry and song, which it is not well to ignore in teaching the industries to little children, chiefly so in respect to the children of the lower classes, who in their ill-done tasks have so little of the stimulus of pleasure. Mrs. Browning knew well whereof she wrote, when she penned the words, "Virtue kindles at the touch of joy."

If inquiry for results be made, it may be safely affirmed that ninety-nine per cent. of our children, who have left school at the age of twelve or thirteen, during the last five years, having finished the prescribed course (made ready, alas! we are forced to exclaim, too young for the market of labor), are now self-supporting, industrious girls, equipped with a practical knowledge of domestic industries, which must go far toward making their future homes those of thrift and comfort. It is the mothers in these homes who will have the largest share in making them, and the children born in them cannot but be in a measure fortified against the temptations which are always lying in wait for the idle and incompetent.

THE KINDERGARTEN

AS A CHARACTER BUILDER.

ABSTRACT OF A PAPER BY MRS. SARAH B. COOPER, SAN FRANCISCO, CAL.

When the old king demanded of the Spartans fifty of their children as hostages, they replied, "We prefer to give you a hundred of our most distinguished men."

This tells the story of the value of the child to any nation or to any age. The hope of our great Commonwealth lies in the cradles of our country to-day. The power of early training and habit is not easily overestimated. The chains of habit are generally too small to be felt till they are too strong to be broken. We are to talk, therefore, of little children, of their training and development. We are to speak of the kindergarten in its relation to character building.

The cultivation of character is the chief concern of life. To secure the best conditions for growth and development is the problem of the age. We are apt to forget that there is a developing downward as well as upward, that there is a system of devolution as well as of evolution. Every child owes it to God and the world to make

the most of himself, to cultivate every gift and grace with which he is endowed. No limit should bound his attainment but the limit of his own painstaking.

The science of the unfoldment of a human being is the grandest science to which the mind of man ever devoted itself. The art of developing true manhood and womanhood is the noblest art that ever challenged human thought and investigation. Therefore, it is that true educators are the kings and queens of this world; and, just as long as brain is master and owner of this universe, they will continue to be the supreme potentates of earth. It is grand to be an artist in marble. It is grander still to be a fashioner of men.

What the world most needs to-day is character,—genuine character. It has been well said that the aim of education is not to make reading and calculating machines, but steady, intelligent, thrifty men, practising regular industry beneficially to society, and therefore profitably to themselves,—men who possess self-restraint to abstain from wasting and misusing the product of their industry; and just here is where the temperance problem would find its best and surest solution, in teaching children self-restraint and self-government. Education should give men forethought to store a portion of the product of their industry against sickness or old age. It should teach them honesty and trustworthiness, the prevalence of which qualities in society establishes confidence that their own savings will be enjoyed. It should beget a sense of parental duty, inducing them, in turn, to seek to implant in their children a disposition similar to their own. What I wish to show is that the kindergarten, as a system of training, is designed to inculcate just such principles and build up just such character. The kindergarten has for its basis moral training. It proceeds upon the principle that right doing must be based upon right feeling, and that the doctrines inculcated by the Ten Commandments and the Golden Rule must be wrought into the hearts of the young at the very threshold of life,—not, indeed, by mere dogmatic teaching, which a little child cannot understand, but by helping him to lead a pure, good life, which, according to his powers and capabilities, he can and ought to lead. "We learn through doing," is the foundation principle of the kindergarten system.

You cannot, says Froebel, do heroic deeds in words, or by talking about them; but you can educate a child to self-activity and to well-doing, and through these to a faith which will not be dead. The kindergarten child is taught to manifest his love in deeds rather than

works. A child thus taught never knows lip service, but is led forward to that higher form of service, where his good works glorify the Father, thus proving Froebel's assertion to be true, where he says, "I have based my education on religion; and it must lead to religion."

Character building in the kindergarten goes forward by means of personal activity in an atmosphere of happiness and contentment. Froebel insisted that education and happiness should be wedded,—that there should be as much pleasure in satisfying intellectual and spiritual hunger as physical hunger. And should not this be so? Is it not more or less the fault of methods, when school and misery are closely allied in the thought of the little child? Does it not, as a rule, argue some radical defect in the personality of the teacher, when little children hate the school-room?

Said a little fellow to me, recently, in one of my visits to the kindergarten: "Mrs. Cooper, can't you fix our clock, so it won't go so fast? We don't want to go home so soon. We've got such lots of nice, pretty work to do!" This tells the whole story of the joy that the little ones find in their work in the kindergarten. This is exactly as it ought to be. Every faculty of our being should find joy in development. Blessed be the hand that prepares a pleasure for the child! It is the blessed *sunlight* that knocks at the door of the sleeping germ, and says, "Come forth!" The root feels the warmth of entreaty, and obeys the gentle command.

The epochs of educational growth follow the divinely ordained epochs of vegetable growth. The human plant, like the vegetable, has its root life, its stem life, and its blossom life. That the blossom will largely depend upon the care and nurture bestowed on the root no one will deny.

The salient question for present consideration is: Does the kindergarten best nourish and nurture the root life of the human plant? Does it evoke the best results? Does it harmoniously develop the threefold nature of childhood,—the physical, the intellectual, and the moral? Does it proceed upon the principle that every little child is a child of nature, a child of man, and a child of God? We claim that it does all this. The kindergarten era embraces an interval stretching for three or four years between the nursery and the primary school. It admits of more formal training and discipline than the nursery, and less than is indispensable to the primary school. The kindergarten is designed to get hold of little, neglected children, who are left to run the streets from three to six

years of age, and thus prevent them from serving upon the pavement an apprenticeship of crime in their most susceptible age. It is scarcely less valuable to the petted and unrestrained children of well-to-do parents, who are too often left to the care of undisciplined and unskilful nurses, until self-will usurps the place of self-control, and self-indulgence swallows up all the nobler impulses of the soul.

Lycurgus said that he could resolve the whole system of legislation into one problem; namely, the bringing up of the young. The children of a republic which is to survive must be trained in ways of honesty, industry, and self-control. The heart as well as the head must come in for its share of training. Talent cannot be exalted above virtue without peril to the commonwealth. The kindergarten occupies itself very largely with the cultivation of the heart.

To keep children from wrong-doing, you must keep them wisely occupied. The secret of "managing" them is occupation. Activity is the great law of childhood. It is the mission of the kindergarten to turn that restless activity to good account, to utilize it. Instead of the everlasting "Oh! don't do this!" and "Don't do that!" and "You shall do this!" and "You shan't do that!" the child is *given something to do*, which enlists his eager attention and awakens his latent ingenuity. A double service is thus rendered. He is both entertained and disciplined. He must learn to help himself. He must be taught self-reliance. The simple fact of the matter is all helps that smother self-help are bad. The help of others should be to us what phosphates are to the soil. They should not be the thing grown, but they should stimulate the growth of the desired thing in us. Through the gifts and occupations of the kindergarten, the pupil acquires a skilful use of his hands and a habit of accurate measurement of the eye, that will be a life possession to him. The lessons in modelling prepare for the various arts of the pottery and foundry as well as the fine arts of sculpture and architectural ornamentation. In this way, the kindergarten prepares for useful and virtuous citizenship. It is the idle brain that is the devil's work-shop. It is just in this way that the kindergarten wisely utilizes a valuable portion of the child's life, heretofore left to run to waste, or, worse still, to the acquiring of vicious habits and propensities. While it teaches no special trade, its preparatory training and practice tend to make all technical processes simple. Let us take a simple fact to illustrate: Hundreds of years ago, a sturdy old fighting king of France, with the keen sagacity which great soldiers always possess, established free drawing schools, which have

been maintained ever since. As early as 1848, Paris had 6,000 little children in infant schools; and to-day there are in the Republic of France 400,000 in these schools. Now, what has been the result of this wise forethought and care? To-day, the French are the most artistic race in the world. This artistic skill, cultivated from earliest childhood, makes it possible for "a Frenchman to take some worthless clay and mould it into a vase, bake it, and embellish it, and thus produce a work of art which, in the mart of the world, would realize more money than all the profits of a year's work on one hundred and sixty acres of land." The one sells the product of muscle; the other, a bit of clay originally worthless, but made valuable because, at length, it has been surcharged with brain and artistic skill. To the inventive genius of America link the artistic skill of France, and we may challenge the world in competition. To accomplish this, the kindergarten, with its industrial training and symbolic culture, must get hold of the little children just as early in life as possible.

The aim of the kindergarten does not centre on the branches taught, but in the developing results of the teaching. It does not set itself to a task outside the child, but in bringing the given individuality to its highest excellence. The ideal does not lie in the possibilities of the subjects taught, but in the folded-away possibilities of the child. The question is not whether the child is up to a given average in respect to other members of the class, but whether he is up to the average of his own capabilities. And with this individual development comes also the most harmonious social development. The little ones become strong in unity of purpose and action, happy in the division of labor, and rejoicing in the general good. The kindergarten is a diminutive republic, with the regnant motto, "*E pluribus unum*," with its implied birthright of liberty, equality, and fraternity.

Froebel was one of the most devout of men. His nature was essentially religious. He insisted that the spiritual and physical development of childhood should not go on separately, but that the two should be closely wedded to one another. He felt that simple intellectual culture was not enough, that mere increase of knowledge will not, in and of itself, make a man moral and upright. "The power of self-love is stronger than the love of others, and the power of a present passion more pressing than any mere abstract knowledge of right." Some kind of moral education is inevitable. It is impossible to send the intellect of a child to school and keep the heart at home. You cannot send one part of the nature without

sending the whole. Nay, more: you cannot touch one chord of our curious nature without the others vibrating. If the work of education be thorough and complete,—if body, soul, and spirit be harmoniously trained and developed,—there shall be within the hearts of the children a guarantee of the future of the commonwealth, a pledge of its perpetuity, progress, and power.

Hence, Froebel laid great emphasis upon the personality of the teacher. "It is the man or woman that makes the impression on the child, and not the marks upon the blackboard." It was Thomas Arnold who made the school at Rugby. I believe, with that eminent authority on educational affairs, Dr. Mayo, that no one is fit to become a teacher of little children who has not a deep, patient, enthusiastic love, founded on a religious faith in their spiritual nature as children of God, their moral obligation to God and man, and the mighty issues, private and public, involved in their coming life.

And now a word about our work among the needy children of San Francisco. We are near our sixth mile-stone. Six years ago, with a monthly pledge of only \$7.50, but with faith in God and goodness, my Bible class opened its first kindergarten in the very heart of the Barbary coast,—the Five Points of San Francisco. We then had but forty scholars. We have just opened our eleventh class, with a total enrolment of nearly 600 children; and the total receipts of the present year will be about \$12,000. Most of our children are but three or four years old. The hearts of many of our wealthy citizens turn very tenderly and generously to this work among the children. Mrs. Leland Stanford has given, from first to last, \$11,500 to our work, and sustains three hundred children in our schools. Mrs. Charles Crocker has always given most generously, and Miss Crocker sustains a large class in the Silver Street Kindergarten. Mrs. George Hearst has also generously sustained a kindergarten in a needy portion of the city. Others have given with liberal hand, and worked untiringly. Business men feel the power and import of the work. The Produce Exchange supports a class. As a business investment, as a legacy to their own children, critical, observing men give to this work. They feel that the kindergarten is unquestionably the very best foundation for industrial education. And, as has been truly said, this plan of industrial education brings with it some hope of alleviating the misery which so abounds, and of making good citizens of a class who have been so long a burden upon municipal shoulders. We may give in the old way until we have given every

thing away, and there is no relief from the terrible poverty, while the habit of receiving succor only grows stronger from what it is fed on. But to teach a man, woman, or child — *above all, the children* — that to receive that for which no return is made is a disgrace, and to put them in the way of earning an honest living, is the first and most important step toward doing away with professional beggary, and raising the ambition of a mass of people heretofore supposed to be without that quality.

It is one of the most cheering of omens that strong and w e heads and noble hearts are taking hold of this subject in good earnest. Men of business, who have business ideas and sagacious views on these subjects, are finding time to devote to these great themes. They realize that they lie at the very foundation of national life. To neglect them is to invite national peril. Women of wealth and culture are devoting their best energies to the solution of these mighty problems of social improvement.

There is no surer way of reforming the homes of these neglected children than through the kindergarten. Every dollar put into work among very little children is worth ten times the amount put into work among adults,—yes, fifty times. It is Nature's way to attend to things *very early*, if she would secure good returns.

COMPULSORY EDUCATION

IN RELATION TO CRIME AND SOCIAL MORALS.

BY WILLIAM T. HARRIS, LL.D.

The question of compulsory education as a means of prevention of crime involves prior questions relating to the nature of education, and its different branches or species. It involves likewise a consideration of the nature of crime, and of what constitutes a preventive agency for crime.

If education in general does not act as a preventive of crime, it is useless to expect any good results from compulsory education. If some kinds of education are effective in the prevention of crime, and others not, then the first business of practical importance is to ascertain what branches of education possess this utility, and in what features is to be found the desired virtue.

Let us open the discussion by reference to some of the statistics bearing on the question of school education. In the report of the

United States Commissioner of Education for 1872 there are valuable special articles on the relation of school education to crime, to pauperism, and to productive industry. These articles are a mine of information and sound reasoning on the topic we are considering. In the essay of Dr. E. D. Mansfield, which forms a part of the Commissioner's report, we have given: the aggregate number of prisoners in 1870 was 110,538; aggregate who could read and write, 82,812; aggregate number who could neither read nor write, 21,650; and of those who could barely read, but not write, 5,931; total illiterates, 27,581, or 25 per cent. of the entire number of prisoners.

These returns are collected from seventeen States, fourteen of these being Western or Middle States. Considering that the mere ability to read and write implies only three or four months' schooling, it is surprising to see that so many of the prisoners come from the very small class of the population in these seventeen States that is reckoned illiterate or nearly so.

Taking the State prisons and jails of New York and Pennsylvania, showing an aggregate number of 12,772 prisoners, the number totally ignorant was found to be 19 per cent. of the whole; taking the totally ignorant and the very ignorant, the amount was 33 per cent. of the whole; adding to these the very deficient, the amount was upward of 60 per cent.

In the prisons and jails of the central North-west, including Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, and Wisconsin, returns from thirty penitentiaries, workhouses, and jails, showed an aggregate of 18,931 prisoners. Of these, 40 per cent. are classified as totally ignorant; 6 per cent. more, as very ignorant; 29 per cent. more, as very deficient,—making a total of 75 per cent. very deficient, very ignorant, or totally ignorant.

Taking four State prisons in Minnesota, Iowa, Kansas, and California, of 1,957 prisoners in the aggregate, it was found that 21 per cent. were totally ignorant, 10 per cent. more were very ignorant, and 19 per cent. more very deficient, or 50 per cent. below the standard fixed upon as the separating line for very deficient.

Taking the States of Maryland, Kentucky, and South Carolina, 2,400 prisoners (a majority colored) were classified as 60 per cent. totally ignorant, and 25 per cent. more as very deficient, or 85 per cent. as at least very deficient in school education.

Turning from these statistics to the census returns for 1870, we take next the ratio of illiteracy in the entire population, and compare it with the ratio of illiterate criminals. In New York and Pennsyl-

vania, we see that, while the illiterate in the entire population amount to only 4 per cent., the illiterate prisoners amount to 33 per cent. of all the prisoners, and the very deficient includes 60 per cent. of them.

In other words, the 4 per cent. of the entire population that is illiterate furnish 33 per cent. of the criminals,—twelve times as many criminals from the illiterate as from an equal number who were not illiterate. The ratio is found thus: 4 per cent. of the entire population are illiterate, and 96 per cent. not illiterate. The 4 per cent. illiterate furnish 33 per cent. of the criminals, which is more than eight times the quota that they should furnish if education made no difference in this matter. The 96 per cent. not illiterate furnish only 67 per cent. of the criminals,—*i.e.*, about two-thirds of their quota. Hence, in this capacity for furnishing criminals, the illiterate surpass the not-illiterate in the ratio of eight to two-thirds, and thus in fact furnish twelve times as many criminals as an equal number of not-illiterates do.

In the central West, $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of the population is returned as illiterate, and 46 per cent. of the criminals illiterate. Hence the illiterates furnish thirteen times their share of the criminals. In the far West and the Pacific section, the returns give 3 per cent. illiterate as furnishing 31 per cent. of the criminals, or tenfold their quota. In the three Southern States, 22 per cent. illiterate furnish 60 per cent. of the criminals. In these statistics, it is shown that, of the 110,538 prisoners, 91,427 are whites: of the latter, 57,824 are foreign born.

Statistics collected by Dr. E. C. Wines show that in France the number of persons under arrest from 1867 to 1869 was 444,133, of whom 442,194 were reported as unable to read, making over 95 per cent. Of the illiterates, there was an average of one arrest for each 41 persons; but only one arrest for 9,291 persons who could read. This seems a too great disproportion, measured by our American experience.

Further statistics from Dr. Wines show in England, out of 157,223 committals to county or borough prisons, 53,265 illiterate, or 34 per cent.; in Switzerland, the average of criminals unable to read, through all prisons, 83 per cent.

These facts go to prove that even a slight degree of school education has an effect to lessen the tendency toward crime. It is to be remarked that statistics are to be used with caution, inasmuch as each quantitative result conceals within it an infinitude of qualitative factors which may possibly assist in the product. Were it possible to eliminate all the qualitative factors but one, the numerical statement would be unambiguous.

In connection with this, I give some statistics taken from a recent work on industrial education. In the Philadelphia penitentiary, it is said there were in the period 1860-70 1,605 prisoners. Of these, 490 were illiterates, making over 30 per cent. of illiterates. In the same penitentiary for this decade there were 1,217 that had never been apprenticed to any trade, or 76 per cent. of the total number.

Without further consideration, it might seem that the ratio of criminals from those who can read and write is two and one-half times as large as from those who have been apprenticed to a trade. But the illiterates over ten years of age for Pennsylvania in 1870 were counted at less than 5 per cent. of the population, while the proportion of the population returned as engaged in some form of productive industry is nearly 35 per cent. Hence, it would appear that the 35 per cent. of industrial population furnished 24 per cent. of the criminals, while the 95 per cent. that could read and write furnished only 30 per cent. of the criminals. The apprenticed furnished two-thirds of their quota of criminals, while the educated furnished less than one-third.

In the decade from 1870 to 1880, it is said that, out of 2,383 prisoners, 706 were illiterate, while only 433 had been apprenticed to a trade. It would be unfair to suppose that the word "apprenticed" is taken in its ordinary meaning; for, certainly, not one in ten of the industrial population of Pennsylvania has been "apprenticed" in the old meaning of the word. It must be understood to mean those who have been taught to earn their living in some gainful occupation, whether agricultural, mechanical, mercantile, or personal. With this meaning, the 433 apprenticed, or 18 per cent. of 2,383, come from the 35 per cent. of the entire population that are engaged in productive industry; while the 706, or 30 per cent., of illiterate prisoners have come from the 7 per cent. of illiterates reported in the census for 1880.

The 76 per cent. of the prisoners that has not been apprenticed come from the 39 per cent. of the population over ten years of age, and not returned as engaged in any gainful occupation. The unapprenticed furnish twice their quota of criminals, while the illiterates furnish from four to thirteen times their quotas of criminals.

In the face of these statistics, let us consider for a moment the characteristics of the two terms with which we are now dealing,—education and crime. Crime is defined as breach of the laws of the State. The criminal attacks society. He injures his fellow-man in person or property. He prefers the gratification of some selfish passion or appetite to the good of his neighbor.

Now, what is the training which develops in the child a respect for the social whole, a feeling that society embodies his substantial good, — a feeling of preference for the good of his fellow-man over his own whim or caprice?

Certainly, that training is the training which is given by bringing up the child in the society of others, and causing him to practise perpetually those customs which respect persons and property. A due sense of public opinion, a respect for the ideal standard of right and wrong set up in the community, is the primary requisite.

It is clear that man can live in society and constitute a social whole only so far as individuals are educated out of their natural animal condition, and made to respect social forms more highly than mere animal impulses. Hence, it is clear that society itself rests upon education, in this broad sense of the word.

But what has this to do with school education? Much of the education into a respect for social forms and usages is given by the family, and before the age proper for schooling. Then, again, it must be admitted that another part of this education comes later, and is learned in the pursuit of one's vocation in life,—the education that comes from bending one's energies into a special channel for the purpose of earning a living. Another form of education is to be found in the part that one bears in politics, within one's party, or in the exercise of functions conferred by the State, or still farther in the exercise of patriotic feeling. Lastly, there is the Church, which furnishes a form of education most important, because it lays fullest stress on human duty, basing it on divine commands. The Church educates the individual into the sense of his existence as a mere unsubstantial creature when living in neglect of the divine ideal manhood, but as a substantial and eternally blessed life when lived according to the forms prescribed in religion. These forms are forms that respect the welfare of the whole, and measure the conduct of the individual by his preference of that welfare over his own selfish impulses.

The family, the vocation, the State, the Church, are the four great cardinal institutions of education. The school is only a device brought in to re-enforce these substantial institutions; but it is a very important device, notwithstanding its supplementary character. It may re-enforce the family by giving to the youth the command of such conventionalities as reading and writing and moral behavior; or it may re-enforce the vocation by giving instruction in arts and trades or professions; or it may re-enforce the Church as a Sunday-school,

giving instruction in religion; the military school or the naval school may re-enforce the education of the State.

Our question deals directly with the education of the school; but we must carefully bear in mind the several educational functions of these institutions, so as not to overestimate the functions of the school or in any way confound its province with what belongs to the great social institutions.

Family education must furnish that indispensable preliminary education in personal habits, such as cleanliness, care of the person and clothing, respectful treatment of elders and superiors, obedience to authority, the sense of shame, religious observances, and the use of the mother tongue. The school must presuppose that these are already taught by the family; but the school must not neglect them, although it does not make them its special aim. The family does more, in fact, than educate the child in those indispensable things just recited. It builds up within the child's mind the structure of his moral character, making for him a second nature of moral habit and custom, whose limits and boundaries he regards as of supreme moment. This second nature, or moral nature, is secured by daily sacrifice; and all forms of education lay stress upon self-sacrifice as the foundation of their disciplines.

This process which we call education is, in short, essentially the shaping of man by habit into an ideal or spiritual type of being,—a realization of what we call human nature in contradistinction to mere animal nature. It is an artificial life, a conventional form of living; but it is far more substantial and divine than the life of the mere animal man. Man as an animal is a savage: as civilized, he is an ethical being, who has set up within himself a system of duties and obligations which he observes at the expense of neglecting the impulses of his merely animal nature.

To what end is all this? Is it not because man, as an individual, wills to combine with his fellow-men in such a way as to avail himself of the united endeavor of all? By the organization of social institutions, he converts a multitude of atomic individuals into a social unity. The individuals do not get lost in this social unity, like the waves of the sea. But the social unity is of that wonderful character that it re-enforces the might of each individual by the might of the whole.

Speaking technically, the individual becomes the species; or, in giving up by self-sacrifice his selfish peculiarities and devoting himself to the service of others, he gains for himself the service of all

mankind. The individuals are transmuted into one grand individual, of which each individual is the head, and each individual is also the foot. According to Kant's definition, a living organism is such that every part of it is alike means and end to all the other parts. So, in this social body, every individual human being is alike the means and the end for all others. Hence there is a "Grand Man," as Swedenborgians say.

In the matter of food, clothing, and shelter, the individual toils in his vocation to produce a special product,—something useful to the rest, and demanded in the market of the world. In return for this gift of his day's labor, he is permitted to draw from the market of the world his share of all the productions collected from all climes, brought hither by the commerce of nations. This is a perpetual process of united human endeavor, in which by self-sacrifice the individual re-enforces himself by the race.

So, too, the family, the most embryonic of human institutions,—the family enables the elder to assist the younger, the mature the immature, the well and strong to assist the sick and weak. It equalizes age and bodily condition, re-enforcing each condition by the aid of all others.

The great object, then, of education is the preparation of the individual for a life in institutions, the preparation of each individual for social combination. Education inculcates sacrifice of animal proclivities, in order to secure a higher well-being in the life of the community.

Crime is, therefore, a reaction on the part of the individual against the very object of education. It attacks the necessary forms of social life, and asserts for itself the right to persist in the form of the non-social individual. Society must defend itself, and reduce the rebellious individual to harmony with itself. Inasmuch as the social form is such that the individual who puts it on and becomes a member of the family, the community, or the State, does not act directly for himself, but works for others and accepts the service of others in return for his own deed, so, too, punishment for crime takes on the same form: the criminal is made to receive for his deed an equivalent reflected back from society. As his deed injures society, it is returned upon him by society and injures him. If he attacks his neighbors by personal violence, his deed is made to come back to him by physical constraint or even by violent death on the gallows. If he attacks the property of his fellow-men, he is made to suffer in property, in the possession of personal freedom and the right to the prod-

ucts of his own labor. Thus, society treats the criminal who rebels against it just as though he, the criminal, had intended to do a social deed, and not a selfish one. It is a piece of irony. The State says to the criminal: "Of course, you recognize society, and expect to reap what you sow. You have an undoubted right to possess and enjoy the fruits of your own deeds. I will see that they are returned upon you. Your deed of violence on your neighbor shall therefore return upon you. Whatever you do you shall do to yourself."

Turning now from this view of the general educative character of the institutions of society, and the end and aim of all society to aid the individual by the might of the whole, and from this study of crime, let us define for ourselves the place of the school in education, and try to discover its relation to the prevention of crime.

The school, as we have seen, is a means of education auxiliary to each of the four cardinal institutions; and, as such, the school in all of its forms is ethical and preventive of crime. The ordinary type of school—the so-called "common school"—receives the child from the family at the age of five or six years. It receives him into a social body (for the school is a community), and educates him by "discipline" and "instruction," as they are technically called. By "discipline" is meant the training in behavior, a training of the will, moral training. It consists in imposing upon the child a set of forms of behavior rendered necessary in order to secure concert of action,—such forms as regularity, punctuality, silence, and industry. These are the four cardinal duties of the school pupil. Without them, the school cannot act as a unit, instruction cannot be given in classes, and no good result achieved. We call these duties mechanical duties, but they underlie all higher ethics. Without silence in the school, without self-sacrifice on the part of each pupil, restraining his impulse to prate and chatter and occupy the attention of his fellow-pupils, there could be no work done. Each pupil would interfere with the work of every other pupil; and the result would be chaos or worse,—because anarchy is chaos made active and hostile to heaven's first law.

Order is not only the first celestial law, but it is the first law of all social combination. The school could not possibly undertake a more direct and efficient training of the child for social combination than it does undertake in its four cardinal phases of discipline,—regularity, punctuality, silence, and industry.

Its method of securing these items of discipline may be good, bad, or indifferent, according to the pains it takes to convert external

constraint into willing obedience and unconscious habit. The good school unquestionably shows us the constant spectacle of good behavior become or becoming a second nature to the pupils, so that there is a maximum of regularity, punctuality, silence, and industry with a minimum of self-consciousness in regard to it, although there is an insight into the necessity of such conformity to rule, and a conscious conviction in favor of it whenever any untoward occasion brings up the question. Consequently there is a minimum of corporal punishment in the good school. Necessary as it is in dealing with crude depravity, the school must have got far beyond that stage of discipline before it can be called "good."

This training of the will, we observe, is a training of each pupil to behave in such a form of artificial or conventional restraint that he may combine in the best manner with his fellow-pupils, and be in a condition to give to and receive from them school instruction. Is it not clear that, once trained to observe set forms of behavior in the school, it becomes a second nature to observe such forms everywhere, and the individual has solved the problem of life so far as the prevention of crime is concerned?

But discipline in the school is wholly formal. It exists for an end: this end is instruction. What is the character of this instruction? First of all, school instruction aims to give the child an ability to use the arts of reading, writing, and arithmetic, the famous "three R's." He must learn to read the printed page, to represent in written characters his own words, and to enumerate the objects of the world.

Here, it is of first importance to note the fact that these fundamental studies of the school concern social combination quite as much as the four cardinal phases of discipline, just considered. To learn to read the printed page is to learn how to use the aggregated experience of mankind. The experience of mankind is ethical; for it contains only one lesson, infinitely repeated,—the lesson of the necessity of conformity to law in order to achieve human well-being. Human experience records nothing but the success of combined human endeavor, and the failure of selfishness which avoids such combination. What is reading in itself except the art of appropriating for one's self the thoughts of one's fellow-men? Reading and writing are the arts of intercommunication *par excellence*. Arithmetic is the art of making quantitative combinations, and is equally fundamental, so far as the quantitative phases of society are concerned. Arithmetic, moreover, underlies all conquest over nature. Divide and conquer the empire of things by means of arithmetic.

As to the practical effects of reading and writing in the prevention of crime, we have had evidence pointing in that direction in the statistics of jails and prisons. The *rationale* of such effects may now be partially clear. The ability to read and the actual use of this ability in reading tend to bring to bear the life of society as a whole upon the life of the individual. Suppose he reads a newspaper. He finds interest in the deeds of his fellow-men,—chiefly national deeds in wars and treaties, deeds of civil society in trade and commerce and other industries, deeds of crime and deeds of retribution by the tribunals of justice, society gossip dealing with manners. How surprising, when we think of it, is the fact that the most empty species of literature, the so-called “trashy novel,” is filled with descriptions of the manners of polite society,—in short, full of the details of these forms which appertain not to the individual as mere animal, but to the individual as member of society! The trashy novel portrays for the raw, inexperienced youth its ideal of the behavior of men and women in society. It shows bad manners and good manners, to the manifest advantage of the latter. Manners are superficial? Yes, but indispensable to man's life in institutions. Like the Egyptian sphinxes that lined the avenues of temples at Karnak and Luxor, they form the approach to the spiritual sanctuary itself. All instruction in good manners is of the nature of a safeguard to virtue and preventive of crime.

The man who reads habitually breathes the atmosphere of social human experience, and is in so far made to feel the substantiality of social life over mere brute life. He learns to look upon his every act from the stand-point of public opinion. He views all his own industry in its relation to the industry of his fellow-men.

The school, therefore, in teaching reading, writing, and arithmetic, deals in the most direct manner with forms of civilization by giving the individual the means of appropriating to himself the wisdom of the human race. In the newspaper, he may see the daily spectacle of humanity at large,—a vision of his own human nature realized on a large scale in all mankind. As particular person, he is only a possibility of man, having realized only one small phase of human nature. In the human race, he sees the revelation of all the possibilities of human nature. This spectacle of the race is possible through the printed page, the newspaper and the library.

But the common school has other studies, every one of which, however, tends in the same direction as the “three R's.” There is geography, manifestly adapted to give to the individual a knowledge

of the world of individuals. It shows their habitat, their means for production of food, clothing and shelter, and culture. Who are my fellow-men, and how do they live? What are they doing for me, and what from my industry goes to them? The veil of the near horizon lifts, and reveals to this private individual the society in which he exists,—twelve hundred millions of human beings all looking hitherward with their daily tasks! The study of geography is preventive of crime in so far as it teaches the same lesson of social combination that we have already discussed.

Again, there is history as a common-school study. It is the study which looks toward the nation as an institution, for its individuals are nations. This is the one study that develops patriotism. Take away all knowledge of history, all knowledge of nations, all knowledge of the past and present of one's own nation, and there could be no patriotism: even the object of patriotism would not exist in the mind. The high and pure devotion of one's self to his country, the high and pure interest in all peoples on this planet,—both these are cultivated by the study of history. The school teaches the pupil how to study history and where to find it.

There is study, more or less, of a purely scientific character carried on in the school. There is grammar,—the science of the organization of language showing how reason reveals itself in its special creation, human speech. The framework of reason is logic, and logic is revealed in the laws of syntax and etymology. Self-knowledge of an intimate kind, therefore, is reached in the study of grammar. Inasmuch as language is not the product of individual industry, but a joint product of human society, it is clear enough, without analysis, that language studies in school all lead to an insight into human combination, and tend, therefore, to the prevention of crime.

Doubtless, the school alone is only a small part of education; but it is a very important part for the reason that it deals with conventionalities, technical means,—instrumentalities shall we call them?—of human intercourse,—in short, with the tools of human, spiritual combination.

Now, any one or all of the educational agencies may fail absolutely to prevent crime. But social science does not find other recourse than to strive to make more efficient these agencies,—improve the family nurture, improve the school, the trades and vocations, the partisan politics, the Sunday-school. All these instrumentalities are very crude, as we may easily see, in their present condition. The question that immediately concerns us in this paper is the improve-

ment of common-school education as preventive of crime by making it more effective in reaching all the children of the community.

Undoubtedly, compulsory education is a valuable means for this end. I do not see why the common form adopted is not sufficiently effective. Children under ten years of age shall not be employed in any species of labor that takes them from school. Between ten and fourteen years, children shall not be employed in any industry that prevents them from receiving at least twenty weeks' schooling for each two years. So much education as this provides for will prove very efficient in training the average youth in correct ethical habits.

There will be special cases wherein parental education has failed, and there has happened a consequent premature hardening of the disposition of the child, to such an extent that the school cannot remedy it. Here, we must pause a moment to call attention to the kindergarten as a very valuable instrumentality, especially in two directions very difficult to reach in common schools, if neglected until the children are past six years of age. The kindergarten takes children at four years or even earlier,—at the period when the child has begun to be interested in the outer world, as he catches glimpses of it beyond the circle of the family. The children of very poor parents are prone to neglect the education of the child at this age, and he grows up amid constant lessons in wickedness and vice. On the other hand, in families that have become suddenly rich, the parents are so much engaged in readjusting themselves to their new social positions and in directing their business affairs that they leave their precocious children to incompetent nurses and governesses, who pamper them into self-indulgent youth, destined to early ruin. The kindergarten, all of whose methods are based on true ideas of social combination, has proved very potent in saving both these classes of youth,—the depraved of the proletariat and the depraved of the wealthy class.

It is clear, when we study the kindergarten and come to understand its methods of utilizing play, that healthy amusement among young people could be made educative of the social sense more largely than it is, and thus be another preventive of crime.

Industrial education in the form of the school, since the practical abolition of apprenticeship, is also important. The manual training school and the school-shop, modelled on the Russian or on the Swedish plan, ought to be established to a limited extent in all our cities, and made free, like the common schools. They give admirable instruction in wood-working and in metal-working. But, when we re-

flect that the total number of laborers in metals, iron, steel, tin, copper, brass, etc., of all descriptions, counting twenty-two trades as given in our census, amount only to 585,493 persons, or about one in one hundred of our population, or three in one hundred of all persons actually engaged in gainful occupations, we see that it would be easy to overcrowd the metal industries, and cause disappointment to youth whose parents had placed them in industrial schools with the idea that they were preparing to earn their living thereby.

Counting, in like manner, the laborers in the twenty-five trades of wood-working, we find an aggregate of 763,814 persons, or one and one-half persons in each hundred of the entire population, or say five in each hundred of the people earning their living by gainful occupations. The same danger of overcrowding these trades is apparent. The country is now producing more manufactures of wood and metal than are needed in all its markets, domestic and foreign; and yet it employs in those industries less than three per cent. of the population, and is needing a still smaller ratio on account of its constantly improving machinery.

Turning from this dismal view, one may see clearly that more and more labor is needed in ornamental industries,—industries that can produce goods of artistic value. All education that trains the taste of the workman is a positive gain, and makes a place for workmen who will hold the world market firm and secure, and who will never be thrown out of employment on account of overproduction.

One cause of crime that should not escape our attention while we are discussing this question of education is the increasing growth of cities in our country, due to the invention of labor-saving machinery. The city furnishes a hiding-place for criminals who raid on the property of rural districts. There is a constant recruiting of wayward youth in country and town into organized gangs of thieves and burglars. No State legislature seems to have taken up this problem effectively. There ought to be a new form of police invented,—a sort of detective force, which makes its business the systematic pursuit of thieves and burglars that raid on the rural districts. At present, left entirely unpunished, they thrive and grow numerous, educating into high criminals a large class of wayward youth.

Increasing urban growth for the most part furnishes us our social problems. Compulsory education in the forms of the common school, the kindergarten, the industrial art school, may furnish us the most valuable preventive agencies against crime.

VI.

Employment in Reformatories.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON EMPLOYMENT OF JUVENILE DELINQUENTS.

BY DR. A. G. BYERS.*

Your committee to whom the subject of employment of inmates of reformatory institutions for juvenile delinquents was referred has sought such information as actual experience could afford, and such as might be of practical importance in directing public attention to a subject, regarded by your committee as vital to real progress in this peculiar and most responsible department of public duty.

The importance of determinate results in such investigation will readily occur to those who recognize "industry" as the "law of competence," and who from the study of criminal statistics have traced the evasion of this law in its bearing, everywhere apparent, upon crime. It is safe to estimate, in the absence of exact figures, that not less than seven-tenths of the convicted criminals of the United States are persons who had never learned a trade or followed any stated industrial pursuit. That this percentage could be reduced by proper industrial training of neglected and vicious children, no one will question. It is equally clear that public economy demands that, in the training of youth brought under public care or restraint, liberal expenditure should be made, and the utmost pains should be taken to secure a thorough education and training in some useful and productive industrial art.

In view of this public duty, it may be well to suggest some discrimination (as urged by the late Dr. Bittinger of Pennsylvania) between what he termed "inoccupation" and idleness as causes of crime, idleness being reckoned a vice for which the individual is blamable, while inoccupation, or want of employment, may be simply a misfortune for which society is largely responsible. To teach

* This report was also signed by A. E. Elmore.

the youthful offender how to do something, and then give him something to do, or at least a fair chance in securing employment, is, if not a public duty, certainly in the interest of public economy.

The nature and extent of difficulty encountered in the efforts of the committee to secure information are suggested by the fact that, from about forty different juvenile reformatories to which circulars were addressed asking for information, only fifteen responded.

Of the fifteen institutions from which answers were received, one was a State Reform School, at St. Paul, Minn.; two from Houses of Refuge, of the State of New York; one in the city of New York (Randall's Island); the other the "Western," at Rochester. A report was also received from the State Reformatory of New York, at Elmira, for which acknowledgments are due, but which may not be included in this report, as that institution is not, strictly speaking, a juvenile reformatory.

The other institutions reporting are under different titles, but representing ordinarily the same character of institutions and the same classes of inmates, as follows: State Primary School, at Palmer, Mass.; the Lyman School for Boys, at Westboro, Mass.; the Newark City Home, Berona, N.J.; and eight others denominated industrial schools or homes, as follows: Ohio Industrial School for Boys, at Lancaster; Iowa Industrial School, at Eldora; Wisconsin Industrial School, at Waukesha; Industrial Homes for Girls, at Adrian, Mich., Lancaster, Mass., and Middletown, Conn.; and mixed schools receiving both sexes, some of which are included in the foregoing: the Houses of Refuge of New York, State Primary School of Massachusetts, and the State Industrial School at Golden, Col.; but one girl, however, reported as present in the latter institution.

The different names of institutions receiving the same classes, charged with corresponding responsibilities and seeking to promote the same objects, are brought forward in this connection as indicating a difficulty in determining results. There seems to be an undue sentimentality in regard to names of these institutions. House of Refuge or Reform School is regarded as very distasteful, and without having in any marked degree changed the law under which juvenile delinquents are convicted and committed, the term Industrial School is preferred, probably as being less opprobrious.

As long as homeless, friendless, and neglected children are subject to arrest by the police, to incarceration in station-houses and jails, to trial and conviction before police or other courts of criminal record, the particular *name* of the institution to which a child may thus be consigned is a matter of small importance.

Put away the "Refuge" and "Reform School," if you will, and give us in lieu thereof the "School" and the "Home"; but, for Heaven's sake, if humanity may not be regarded, do not carry the children "home" in the arms of the police, do not consign them to the nursing of filthy prisons, and by association with criminals as well as by the record of the courts mark upon their lives the blotch of crime.

That reformatories are needed, and that they should be organized and equipped for thorough reformatory work, including physical, mental, social, and moral education and training, no one will question; and when the numbers and classes of actual juvenile delinquents—those whose habits of life have become positively hurtful to society, and who need reforming—can be placed and held by law under proper discipline, with a view to determining methods and results of reformatory training, there will doubtless be a heavy falling off of those now classed as juvenile delinquents, who are subjected to legal proceedings, and held under needless, if not injurious, restraints.

Mr. M. C. Harrison, superintendent of the Newark (N.J.) City Home, in a letter explaining his answers to questions relating to employment, says:—

In our experience, we have found that there are from three to ten per cent. of every hundred boys committed who are a distinct class of obdurates, who require special treatment, and *who should be treated as a class by themselves*. If our reformatory measures are ever complete, we must have an institution for this class, where they may be subject to special treatment. With deep-rooted perversities, utterly indifferent as to their fate, moral lepers, they should be isolated, worked with and for by men of large heart and clear perceptions, and held subject to restraint until reformation is assured.

Your committee does not feel justified in occupying the time of the Conference in the discussion of this particular phase of reformatory work. The mere question of names of institutions does not necessarily enter into our consideration of how the inmates may be best employed; but, as the difference between a "home" for children and a reform school for juvenile delinquents implies a difference in age and condition of inmates, their employment, whether as a child in a home or a juvenile delinquent in a reformatory institution, must affect results, if they do not baffle inquiry as to what may be proper and best in the way of employment. We have felt it important to suggest that probably the Industrial Home would be the more appropriate place for a very large proportion of the inmates of juve-

nile reformatories. Possibly, six-tenths of these inmates known as juvenile delinquents, incarcerated under criminal law, and held to penal servitude in institutions known as Industrial Schools, need nothing more than the formative influence and training of a well-regulated home; while the remaining four-tenths (only one-tenth by Mr. Harrison's showing) need the discipline of a reform school. We should, by proper discrimination, seek to save the child from a criminal record through the agency of legalized homes for the homeless and neglected, and place the delinquent in a house of correction or refuge or reform school, and call the one a Home and the other a Reformatory. If it is a spade, call it a spade.

The inquiries of the committee have been directed especially to *instructive* and *productive employment* of inmates, and the answers cover a wide range of occupation. In every instance, instructive employment is recognized as an essential part of the training of inmates.

For boys, the Ohio Reform School reports a greater variety of employments than any other, including carpentering, blacksmithing, tailoring, engineering, printing, baking, laundering, gas-making, shoe-making, brick-making, and telegraphy, all more or less mechanical; while fruit-culture, agriculture, and horticulture, known to be chief employments, are omitted from mention as instructive, but included among the productive industries. Brush-making, also, which may be considered more strictly productive, is not included. This labor (brush-making) is conducted upon the piece-price plan, and gives employment to a large number of boys, and yields some revenue to the institution. Fifty per cent. of the boys who learn trades are reported as becoming proficient in their respective branches before their discharge; but the number who are taught trades is not given, nor is the percentage stated of those who follow successfully their trades or occupations after their discharge. The institution is supported by the State, and about one-fourth of the annual expense is covered by the earnings of the inmates.

The Iowa Industrial School has broom-making and steam-fitting included in its instructive employments; farming and gardening as productive of income, covering one-fifth of its annual expenditure. Seventy-five per cent. are taught mechanical branches complete, and fifty per cent. follow their trades successfully after their discharge.

The Lyman School, Westboro, Mass., teaches domestic work, and derives fifteen per cent. of its expenses from farming and cane-seating chairs. No percentage of results beyond these earnings is given.

The Wisconsin Industrial School teaches shoemaking and knitting, while farming and gardening are mentioned as productive employments. No results of instruction or of production are reported.

All the foregoing institutions are conducted wholly or in part upon what is known as the "family system."

The State Industrial School for Girls at Lancaster, Mass., teaches "housekeeping in all its branches," has no productive industry, and no answers to inquiries concerning results are given. The average age of girls is "fifteen and a half years,"—too old, it would seem, to be retained in an institution, or at least, if retained, old enough to engage in some kind of productive employment.

The State Industrial School of Michigan, at Adrian, teaches all kinds of domestic work, and derives a small income from sewing and dressmaking. "Too young in years," the report says, "to give results"; and the committee feels like adding that, in this respect, the institution seems discreet beyond its years. Its industrial department is known to be admirably managed.

The Industrial School at Middletown, Conn., teaches housekeeping in all its branches, dressmaking, laundry work, etc., and covers about one-tenth of its annual expenditure from paper-box making, custom sewing, and laundry work. Sixty-six per cent. of its inmates follow successfully their respective occupations after their discharge.

The Wisconsin Industrial School, for girls and young boys, teaches all kinds of kindergarten occupations, housework of all kinds in classes, from text-books as well as practically; laundry work; plain sewing, cutting, and fitting; knitting, crocheting, drawn work, and designing of patterns, in which lines of instructive labor the classes are changed quarterly. As productive employment, fine laundry work, plain sewing, making ladies' and children's garments for private customers, and fancy work for sale and on orders.

Twenty-five per cent. of the inmates are reported as becoming proficient in their occupations; and it is "ascertained definitely" that seventy-five per cent. of its inmates discharged, over the age of twelve years, follow successfully the occupation taught them in the institution. About one-twentieth of the annual expenditure is covered by the productive labor of the inmates.

New York (city) House of Refuge teaches domestic work, tailoring, steam and gas fitting, farming, gardening, and general labor. The institution derives an income equal to one-fifth of its expenses from "knitting and sewing." No other result is given.

In the Western House of Refuge, New York, instructive employ-

ment corresponds with that given above in the City Refuge. One-fourth of its annual expenditure is covered by the productive employment in shoemaking and chair-seating, in addition to profit derived from instructive industry. Thirty per cent. of the inmates are reported as becoming proficient in their trades ; but the superintendent adds : "No institution in the land can know what per cent. of discharged inmates follow successfully their trades or occupations after their discharge. They may be good guessers, but it is only a guess." Your committee would respectfully suggest in this connection that, while absolute certainty may not be attained, the results of industrial training in our reformatory institutions is a matter of such importance as to demand something more definite than guess-work.

The State Reform School of Minnesota teaches the manufacturing of tinware, wood-turning, scroll-sawing, wood-working machinery, carpenter work, and painting, in some one or more of which branches of industry twenty-five per cent. of the inmates become proficient before their discharge. Farming and gardening are the productive employments. No results are given.

From the foregoing statements, some study of industrial employments may be suggested, if no positive conclusions are afforded ; and the report is thus respectfully submitted.

INSTRUCTIVE AND PRODUCTIVE EMPLOYMENTS:

THEIR SUITABILITY FOR INDUSTRIAL SCHOOLS AND HOUSES OF REFUGE.

BY MRS. MARY E. COBB,

SUPERINTENDENT INDUSTRIAL SCHOOL FOR GIRLS, MILWAUKEE, WIS.

This title suggests at once the existence of opposing elements in all the industrial pursuits in the institutions named. The purely educational ideal takes no account of cost or waste, but aims only to promote the future efficiency of the individual in the earning of a livelihood and in intelligent citizenship. The productive ideal is the accomplishment of the work of the institution by the pupils, to prevent outlay for labor, or the pursuit of such mechanical employments as will bring an income which shall, in some degree, repay the management for the expenses of the school and home. Thus far, employments for dependent or offending children have been more or less of a compromise between these extremes. Something is sought by which they shall both earn and learn. We have not dared to expect approval of expenditures for manual instruction which cannot be shown to be likely to return at least the money invested; and there is ever a tendency to sacrifice the improvement of the child, even in mechanical arts, to the opportunity to profit by the proficiency already gained. This is sometimes shown in keeping the pupil too long at one kind of work, to avoid teaching another the same, or in continuing him in workrooms or shops where money is earned, while ignorant of things which might be learned in other departments. The habit of industry acquired by regular employment is the strong point advocated by those who practise such a course. They forget that the habit of hating a monotonous, mechanical task is formed at the same time, and is apt to prove the stronger one.

A few manual training schools have been established for the children of the more fortunate classes of society, where the ideal of instructive employment, for boys, has been well inaugurated. These

in the West are notably those at St. Louis and Chicago. The Working Man's School in New York City, also for boys, has given an example of the advantages of that "all-sided development" which is the only true education. But, with the exception of the sewing classes in the public schools of Boston and Philadelphia, and the introduction of the study of domestic economy in a number of private schools in New York, under the auspices of the Industrial Education Association, little organized school work leading to perfected manual training for girls has been effected.

We may not hopefully look even to these established enterprises for plans and methods to improve our work, as the institutions we are considering cannot often afford to introduce them. We should, however, carefully study all that has been accomplished or claimed anywhere; for, having made up our minds as to what we really desire, we can always see more clearly what we can afford, what we may do, and what we must not do, in suiting our ways to our means. Many popular and attractive ideas do not stand the test of such study. Although this question is one of the most unsettled of to-day it is, in some form or other, as old as the pioneer institutions.

Institutional history and personal experience are the only sure preventives and antidotes for charlatanism within, and foolish sentimentality outside, the institutions. While we may be entering upon a new era, let us be careful to take no retrograde steps. To find the golden mean in a system that shall be just to those who support the schools, and yet of sufficient effect upon the general development to be classed as educational, is the present problem.

A fact sometimes undervalued in its consideration is that the industrial schools and reformatories aim to return to society honest, self-supporting citizens, in place of the dangerous refuse given them as material for their work. This material is worse than lost, if not so returned. It becomes pernicious, destructive, and extremely expensive.

We cannot look at the question as an English writer in the *Nineteenth Century* has recently done, who argues that society has no right to spend upon the offending child more money than well-behaved and orderly poor children who have homes may receive. The benefit to the individual is not, perhaps, the strongest plea for care and restoration of destitute and erring children, with even the philanthropist. In society, the interests of high and low are closely identified. The pestilence bred in the hovel may desolate the palace. If social conditions, at least partially chargeable to the vices of the rich and

prosperous classes, brought these children to their present condition, they are more directly the objects of justice and charity than the good children of the worthy poor. It is but an instance of the leaving of the ninety and nine to seek the wandering one. But, their right to the best instruction we can afford being granted, what shall we do, and how shall we do it? It will help us to answer these questions, to consider some of the causes of the differences between these and ordinary children.

We readily concede that the very earliest education of the human being is of the greatest importance; but do we not fail to give the fact due weight? While we yet look upon the child as an infant, its future is almost determined. Its habits as to observation and occupation, as to behavior toward associates or reverence for superiors, as to personal peculiarities, as to eating and drinking,—in short, as to all its ways of living,—are formed. Its knowledge and use of language, its ideas of right and wrong, of truth and justice, its scorn or acceptance of meanness and hypocrisy, even its desire for refinement, and its social and intellectual ambitions, are largely dependent upon the influences under which the first four years of life are passed. What we call nurture is culture. The mother, the father, and the home, or the things that hold their places, decide character in the cradle. The greatest evil of our day is the general lack of family training; and the primary reason is that girls and women do not do, nor *know*, their duty. Dr. Harris said at Saratoga, in 1881: "Society has not equalized conditions in the family to the extent that it has equalized conditions in the school, the social community, the State and the Church. In the family, poverty and wretchedness are allowed to tell upon the nurture of the child, and to sow in him evil seeds, which grow through all after life, in spite of whatever may afterward be done for him. The criminal parent may bring up his offspring to vice. The ignorant parent may bring up his children to manifold bad habits of person and conduct, which will prove embarrassments in all after life."

Few seem fully to realize the awful disadvantages resulting from such influences. It is, undoubtedly, the greatest misfortune that can befall a child to miss the priceless blessings of a well-taught and lovingly protected infancy. And it is a serious question whether, this having been missed, the loss can be made up to the child by simply supplying the same a little later.

If the mason has not laid a good foundation for your house, you do not expect to correct the fault by building the heavy stones he

left out into the upper walls. You know that it must first be torn down, or at least mechanically upheld, while new foundations are laid. And this tearing away, supporting, and rebuilding cannot always be done by the hands that could at first have laid the stones aright: it takes a different kind of skill and judgment. And, then, as to heredity. Not long since, I was told of a little child that was born with one of its feet turned up at the ankle, and folded against the front of the leg. It took the surgeon, and not the mother, to teach that child to walk. It was done in a hospital, and not in the home. Some mental malformations and deformities need the knife and the skill of the expert.

The field of controversy between the advocates for a general placing of children out in families and those of institutional training for neglected children opens here. I will not enter it, but say, in passing, that anything tending to antagonize the two methods of child-saving, or to make one more disgraceful than the other, is likely to do great harm. This study of employments for institutions is, however, based upon the belief that there is a large class of children who should receive their training, even up to the time of going out to earn their living, under expert, special teachers, who know how to root out as well as to plant, to tear away the false as well as to supply the true foundations. Many should be taught in institutions, because there they can be better taught than elsewhere. Such a training school should not be considered a temporary shelter or a makeshift. It has its own work to do in the world, and should be a grand, uplifting force for the lower classes. The good of the child should be its aim, first, last, and always. On this ground only is there reason for the existence of a definite system of institutional instruction, intended to cover a prescribed period of time. In such a system, manual training should have an honored place.

The old systems were deficient in having no principle of selection. Chair-seating, hoop-skirt making, basket-weaving, knitting machines, have been at various times introduced to supplement the domestic work, but without special regard to the pupil's development in mental strength or manual skill. There should be a series of work lessons so arranged as to awaken thought, and to give the knowledge and use of tools and utensils side by side with the ordinary lessons of the school-room.

With hesitancy, I attempt to present our own system of manual training for girls. Our school is far from being a model. Being a private corporation, we have been crippled by an exceedingly

limited income and by an unrecognized, or misunderstood, position among the charities of the State. We feel our defects and limitations every day. Besides, the persons actively and eagerly engaged in such an enterprise are not the ones to give a final judgment on it. There are tendencies, good and bad, which we may not discern, and faults, doubtless, of which we are not even aware. But experience has taught us some things which may profitably be told, and has established views and practices which may deserve more than a curious attention.

The main practical difficulty has been in formulating a series of work lessons whose value should be truly educational. This has been said to be more difficult with girls than with boys. It has not seemed so to me, but rather the reverse. In every institution there is much domestic work necessary, and it must be done promptly and well by somebody. For girls, this can be utilized as the basis for progressive lessons, grading up from the simplest to the most complex and important household knowledge. Sewing, cooking, and laundry work afford all that can be desired in this respect. And as these should form the future employments of at least nine-tenths of the girls of humble parentage, and as they are now very imperfectly valued or performed by an equal proportion of grown women who are housekeepers, a field opens which cannot be overestimated.

Our progression, in manual as in literary training, starts from the kindergarten. We also use it temporarily to arouse and develop faculties of perception and dexterity in quite large girls, even those of twelve or fourteen years old. Feeble-minded and semi-idiotic children up to fourteen also develop well in the kindergarten. Branching from these earliest occupations, we establish work on one line, books on another. On the latter, the pupil goes up through the connecting class with reading chart and slate to the graded school, where, by six stages, the "A Class," the highest, is reached. On the other, during the same time, the "kitchen garden," the primary sewing-class, and the miniature flower and vegetable garden lead up to real work for practical uses. Small tables are soon set with all needed dishes, napkins, etc.; and real dinners are properly served and eaten by the little learners. Then little beds are made, with due regard to folding and shaping; and draperies and pictures are hung in rooms thus made beautiful for their own use. The songs, marches, and accompanying explanations are dropped only as they are outgrown. Paper-folding and mat-weaving are naturally exchanged for stocking-darning and knitting; while counting, assort-

ing, and describing go on until the clothing going to and coming from the laundry is all in the proper baskets or on the proper shelves. The stronger boys of nine and ten, in addition to learning to mend, scrub stairs, halls, bath-tubs, and door sills, also learn something about water, steam, and sewer pipes, traps and valves. A little later, they have their lessons, not tasks merely, in real garden work, feeding poultry and pigs, and keeping the lawn clean. The girls of the same age make all their clothing, except dresses, and learn some drawn work and embroidery, of which the rudiments were taught, and often the original designs furnished, in the kindergarten.

These children, sixty in number, thirty-eight boys and twenty-two girls, all under eleven years of age, live in a family building by themselves, with a matron and two assistants. They do the work of this family, except laundry work, baking, dress-making, and making of the boys' suits. They are taught by classes, and while at work are always with the instructors, who explain, criticise, and report upon each task. The matron teaches sewing; the first assistant, bedroom work; the second, kitchen and dining-room work. All pupils are examined, and their work is changed quarterly. Mrs. Willard's Primer of Domestic Science, No. 1, is used as a text-book. Very little difference is made, or seems to be needed, in thus instructing boys and girls together. The boys want to do everything that the girls do, either with their needles or in setting and serving tables and cleaning of rooms, and are just as proud of the baby skill brought from the kindergarten and applied to darning and mending. I heard a little fellow of seven years gravely criticising the patch on his apron, because the corners were not rounded similarly and the stripes did not match, adding that he wished he had done it himself. On the other hand, the girls are quite as eager for the rake, hoe, and trowel as the boys, and are as much interested in the calves, pigs, and chickens.

To sum up the work of these primary manual classes: Children from three to six or seven years work in kindergarten, and our kindergarten partakes largely of the nature of the Maternal Schools of France rather than of the strictly German type. From seven to eleven years, these occupations are gradually exchanged for *real employments*, graded and arranged for use as an educational power, and carried on side by side with the school-room work, which during the same time takes them into reading, writing, a little geography, arithmetic, and drawing. We have not yet had adequate instruction in drawing; but the kindergarten lessons as to form, color, and com-

binations, are kept in mind, and the children are encouraged or required to copy natural objects and pictures.

The time table for the youngest includes two hours of school and two of work before twelve o'clock, one of work and two of school between one and five o'clock P.M. The rest of the twenty-four hours is given to play, dressing, meals, and sleep. A direct motherly care is exercised night and day, and very careful attention is given to manners and personal habits. The aim is to have the matron and teachers kept in close sympathy with each other, and in practical use of the kindergarten rule of patience and gentleness.

Besides this children's home, the school, which is conducted on the family system, consists of three more family groups of girls (two of them residing under the same roof), whose ages range from ten to eighteen years, together numbering one hundred and twenty. The classification into families is based on the special needs of each in manners and morals. The literary work is that of a graded school in primary, intermediate, and higher rooms, the latter taking, besides the common English branches, American history, civil government, and domestic economy.

The industrial work, whether for the school or for customers, is divided into the following departments:—

1. Plain cooking, dish-washing, dining-room work, and marketing. In this department, with three teachers, there are three kitchens and five dining-rooms; and each class contains from six to ten girls, working daily from four to five hours.

2. Bakery,—making of bread, rolls, plain puddings, cakes, and pies, in large quantities. One teacher; class of two to four; daily work, four hours.

3. Laundry work,—washing, starching, and ironing of all grades up to curtains, fine muslins, and laces, by hand, no steam power nor machinery being used. One teacher; class of from twelve to fifteen; daily, five hours.

4. Care of clothing, cutting by patterns, making and mending of plain clothing, and plain knitting. Three teachers; classes of ten to twenty; daily, five hours.

5. Fine sewing by hand and machine, fine mending, drawn work, ornamental needlework of many kinds, crocheting and knitting of woollen garments. One teacher; class of ten to twenty, mostly on custom work; daily, five hours.

6. Dressmaking,—regular course of instruction in taking measures, cutting and fitting of dresses, cloaks, and shirts by a perfected pro-

fessional system. Eight hours a week, in two lessons, by a practical and experienced dressmaker from the city.

7. Advanced courses in cooking. These are taken at the Milwaukee Cooking School, under Miss Hammond, a well-known teacher from the Boston School of Cookery. Three classes, of eight each, have attended one-half day a week, during the last winter, taking up the regular practice lessons. This course was made possible for our girls by the contribution of the necessary funds (\$8.00 per pupil for each course of twelve lessons) by a number of benevolent ladies of Milwaukee. In addition to the lessons thus given, several girls at a time are under special instruction in the care of the sick and of little children; and all the work of the sleeping rooms, including sweeping, dusting, care of closets, bath-rooms, linen and bedding, and house-cleaning, is taught, in the early morning hours, by three of the literary teachers.

We desire to introduce, under instruction, the raising of fruits and garden vegetables, and bedding plants and flowers; but, although this could be made at once a remunerative industry, we have so far been unable to afford the necessary expense for its outfit. Each of the girls has her own small flower-bed, and many work in the garden and on the grounds at times.

Uniformity of system is secured by the use in all departments of the text-book, "Household Economy," published by Ivison, Blake-man & Co. All work lessons are marked in pocket record books by the teachers, in the same way as are the lessons from books in the school-rooms; and individual progress is daily recorded. A larger book with each girl's name, the departments of industry in which she has already been, and the proficiency attained, is kept at the office. These reports, with the promotions and appointments, are read before the school quarterly, the same as the conduct grade and school register.

All industrial instruction is, as far as is possible, given in the approved methods of the best cooking and sewing schools of our large cities. Each pupil goes through four industrial classes a year, unless obliged to turn back to complete the assigned lessons in book or practice.

The time-table for the older families is substantially as follows: Immediately after breakfast, which is at six o'clock in summer and seven in winter, all are assembled in the main school-room, where, in addition to devotional exercises, a brief lesson in practical morality is given by the superintendent. The kindergarten and primary

schools remain for their early sessions, while all others go by classes with teachers to their respective work-rooms, where, with two short recesses at ten and twelve o'clock and forty-five minutes for dinner, work lessons are continued until two P.M. The working apron is then exchanged for school-dress; and, at half-past two, all departments of the literary schools are in session until five in winter and half-past five in summer. After an hour and a quarter for supper and recreation, the evening is given to the preparation of lessons for the next day.

I should apologize for being so explicit, had I not been urged by some recent correspondents to give full details of the manner of our work. Perhaps no other school of the kind has been doing its domestic work in so systematic a way, though most of them do it, and do it well. But the regular classification and progression, the changes of exercises and instruction by which from three to five hours daily can be given by a girl to industrial lessons, in various departments, taught from the book as well as in practice, while she is doing four hours' work in the school-room daily, is nowhere else, to my knowledge, so thoroughly carried out.

I have said little of the difficulties and hindrances in establishing such a system. Those who are familiar with the work have not failed to think of them. The chief one is to obtain suitable work-room teachers. Trained experts, graduates of normal classes in schools of domestic science, are beyond our means, and, if obtainable, might not combine with their fitness to teach the patience and the devotion necessary to the faithful performance of the duties of a resident officer. On the other hand, good and true women, morally and religiously fitted for the care and training of the young, are often not practical housekeepers, and cannot divest themselves of the idea that they are to direct, as with servants, and get a certain amount of work done, instead of teaching the work chiefly for the learner's advantage. They will tell you, almost with tears, that the fresh class cannot possibly do the required work, and will frequently beg for the reappointment of girls familiar with it. With perseverance, however, and frequent visits of inspection and examination, the superintendent will bring such officers to see that their own success must be measured by the number of their competent "graduates," just as in other branches of teaching. Our matrons and assistants teach in the work-rooms, in addition to the oversight of the household and the personal care of the children.

For two hundred girls, not less than twelve industrial teachers are

needed, besides the specialists who come in or to whom classes may go out. Most of these can also perform the usual duties of a matron as to care during recreations, dressing, night supervision, and instruction in manners and deportment. The exceptions, or additions, are most properly the women employed in teaching advanced needlework, or dressmaking, and laundry work, though we have given to each of these, if resident, responsible moral interests.

I seem to have entirely lost sight of the *productive* part of my topic. Perhaps the system does not promise well in that direction, except as producing intelligent and industrious young persons who can earn their own living, and need never enter the ranks of the improvident. In fact, if it were more expensive than the ordinary training of schools or families, I should believe it paid in actual benefit to society as well as to individuals. But our custom department makes a fair showing financially, when it is considered that, of our one hundred and eighty children, nearly one hundred are under twelve years of age, although the custom work is chosen primarily as a means of education. We estimate the expenses incurred in this department for the last year at about \$475. This is for one additional officer and the use of man and horse in collecting and distributing work. Our receipts for the same time were \$1,541.63. The profits were about one-eighteenth of the entire current expense of the institution. The custom work is chiefly family sewing and washing, though we sell a good many articles of fancy work, and receive orders for a large amount of "drawn work" in linen, even from distant cities; and we do each year some crocheting and knitting for manufacturers.

We cannot but feel that the most valuable mission of such a work as we are trying to do is to elevate domestic service to its proper place as the best pursuit for working girls. It is safer and more honorable than the contemptible makeshifts resorted to, to escape the name of servant, and even than the factories and shops.

Our children come to us at all ages, from earliest babyhood up to ten years old for boys and sixteen for girls. The average age of children leaving us is about thirteen years, as many little ones are given away for adoption. Girls leaving us beyond fourteen years of age have, almost without exception, entered upon the receipt of wages sufficient for their support. Many not yet of age have considerable sums in bank saved from their earnings. Most of these have gone into family service, a few as seamstresses and nursery governesses, and three have been school-teachers. Four have become industrial

teachers in other institutions. Twelve in all have become paid assistants in our own.

The school is but ten years old, and the majority of the three hundred and twenty it has dismissed are yet minors; but seventeen are happily married, and almost without exception good house-keepers, exemplifying the truth of the proverb, "Her husband also, and he praiseth her."

In conclusion, I think we may reasonably claim:—

1. That ordinary domestic employments can be systematically graded and taught for instructive purposes in schools for dependent children and girls.
2. That girls neglected in their earliest years can by such training have better prospects for honorable self-support than with ordinary family instruction.
3. That such a system of industrial education can be carried on with very limited means; and that, with judgment and care, all features introduced as purely educational, the results not being needed for the school's use, can be made considerably more than self-supporting.
4. That, in schools for children averaging under fourteen years of age, industrial employment could not and should not be expected to bear any considerable part of the support of the institution.

LABOR IN REFORM SCHOOLS FOR BOYS.

ABSTRACT OF A PAPER BY T. J. CHARLTON, SUPERINTENDENT INDIANA
REFORM SCHOOL FOR BOYS.

"In the sweat of thy face shalt thou eat bread." The sooner every man, woman, and child accepts this as a personal command and a personal duty, the better it will be for the world. Mankind is disposed to regard this as the curse pronounced upon our race. Our entire system of education is to be blamed for this false estimate. Labor is the most blessed duty ever enjoined upon man, and should be performed with alacrity and with joy. At its magical touch springs into existence not only all the wealth peculiar to civilization, but all that adds to the comforts and luxuries of life.

Labor not only conduces to happiness, but it is essential to the moral welfare of our race. No one, however well-grounded in Christian faith or however highly cultured and refined, can live a truly moral life and be idle. The work-shops of the devil open the moment those of legitimate and useful toil are closed. Dissipation hides its face in the presence of honest toil. During the day, when the busy world is at labor, Crime retires to its lair, to come forth for its prey after nightfall.

Thomas Carlyle, in speaking of labor, said: "There is a perennial nobleness and even sacredness in work. Were he never so benighted, forgetful of his high calling, there is always hope for a man that actually and earnestly works. In idleness alone is there perpetual despair." Labor is the safeguard of society, the bulwark of nations. Take it away, and you remove the strongest support of virtue. There is no substitute for it.

If, then, labor is so essential to the well-being of the morally strong, how much more essential is it to the unfortunate and criminal classes! In the various reformatories of the land, this subject of labor is even more important than in the prisons, because of the restless activity of youth, together with the necessity of fitting them for earning an honest living.

Boys and girls, whether orphans, incorrigible, or criminals, cannot endure idleness. Those of you who have been engaged in educational work know how essential to discipline it is to keep pupils busy. This is true from the kindergarten to the college, from the cradle to the grave.

How, then, shall we keep our institution boys occupied? My answer is: Give them four or five hours of work, about the same number of hours in school, at least two hours for play, an hour in the family, and the rest in sleep. Both the school and labor should be made as attractive as possible. The hours for play should not be overlooked. All that is needed to make play healthful and enjoyable should be done. Ample playgrounds for fair weather, gymnasiums, and play-rooms for cold and stormy days should be provided, at whatever cost. Labor can be made attractive. The farmer's son gayly whistles his favorite airs while hitching his team to the plough. Our institution boys should enter upon their labors as cheerfully. As I would require every boy when at play to play with all his might, so I would have him study and work.

One of the worst features of reformatory labor is that it is deficient in amount. A hundred boys and eight or ten officers frequently accomplish less than eight or ten hired men would do. This is all wrong. A fourteen-year-old boy in a reformatory should do what a fourteen-year-old boy is expected to do out in the busy world. "Wanted,—an industrious and honest boy," is the demand of the age; and our boys should be prepared to meet this want. Let them be taught this economic lesson,—that he who eats must work.

I will not enumerate the various kinds of labor suitable for boys' reformatories. Local needs affect this. Local markets have their influence. Our industries should correspond to the industries pursued in our own States and cities, so that our boys may pursue the same at their respective homes. But, above all, we should teach habits of industry and excellence of work.

While walking through the work-shops of a city reformatory, the superintendent told me that every boy who attained any considerable proficiency in his work at the institution could easily secure employment in the city at the same trade. This was as it should be. When a boy realizes this, he feels that he has something to work for.

One great defect in our institution labor is that, unless a superintendent is watchful, a boy will learn only a part of a trade. The foreman of a shop is generally reluctant to give a boy a change of work, so that he may learn all of a trade. I knew a boy to be kept twelve months putting the hair in brushes. He knew nothing of the other parts of the work. That same boy subsequently learned the shoemaking business in its entirety, and became foreman in a shop, at good wages; but he always felt that that *one* year of his life at the brush-making trade was utterly lost to him.

I know of no duty devolving upon a superintendent that requires more watchfulness than that of giving every boy an opportunity of learning all of a trade. Boys are grateful for such efforts. They see that the State has in view not the dollars and cents earned so much as their individual welfare. When they realize this, their minds are in a condition to receive the lessons needed for their moral growth. In this subject of labor, we must sometimes encounter a demand that it be made remunerative. A large number of people seem to regard the institution that is most nearly self-supporting as the best. If we yield to this demand, and make our work-shops manufactories where the greatest possible work is done, we neglect the most important feature of our work; namely, educational discipline. We are soon assailed by the outcry that we are competing with free labor. I am glad to see this opposition to competition by institutions, for it will result in great good to reformatories and prisons. More attention will be given to educational and moral work, more attention to instructive and less to productive labor. Every inmate of a reformatory should be taught a useful trade, and the labor unions ought never to oppose it. Men who by neglect have pauperized their own offspring should not object when the State gives them a means of earning a livelihood.

Another peculiar feature of our work is that, even after we have taught a boy a good trade, he will not always follow it, when he goes out into the world. This has at times discouraged us. Several instances occur to me. A boy, who selected the baker's trade, in time became as good a baker as his chief. When he went home, he avoided even applying for work in a bakery, but became a driver of a street-car. The best fitted shoemaker secured work in a restaurant. The boy who surpassed all others as a brick-layer, capable of making his three or four dollars a day, entered a printing-office; while the best-equipped plasterer secured work in a livery stable.

But, after all, this tendency to seek other labor than that which they pursued as inmates of the reformatory should not deter us in our efforts. For there was never a good lesson well taught but bore, or will bear, good fruits. If excellence of work was the great aim in the institution life of a boy, it will be of help to him in whatever vocation he enters.

The boy who was taught to be a careful baker, to keep his shop tidy and clean, will make the more careful driver of a street-car. The boy who was taught to make a neat and honest shoe will serve out a meal in a restaurant all the better for it. The boy who, with

plumb-line and trowel, could carry up a perfect corner of a building, will be a safe boy to set type. And the boy who was an expert plasterer will be apt to curry and care for a horse in a livery stable all the better for his training. And the best thing of all is that, when they are thrown out of this new employment, they can resume the trade they learned while with us. So, after all, it may be like bread cast upon the waters, that after many days will return. The Apostle Paul's being a tent-maker served him a good purpose after he began his work as a missionary.

When the students of Cornell University, some years ago, wrote to the eloquent Dr. Collyer, asking him for some specimen of his work as a blacksmith at his humble forge in England, he went to the nearest blacksmith's shop and made for them a horseshoe, to show that his skilful hand had not forgotten its cunning. I am glad to see in our country the laborer preferred to the aristocrat. I rejoice to see men of toil placed at the helm, now and then, to guide the ship of State. It was not so one hundred years ago. Then, as a rule, only men of wealth filled high public offices.

But there is another defect in our institution training. Boys are apt to become machines. They are taught to do what they are told to do; and, when this is accomplished, they do not look about for other work. In other words, they do not think enough. When John Opie, the great Cornish portrait painter, was asked by an admiring visitor with what he mixed his paints to give such lifelike color, he brusquely replied, "With brains, sir." What we need is to teach our boys to mix more brains with their work.

When the graduates of Annapolis and West Point stood, passive and helpless, striving to recall something from their text-books on engineering and navigation that would enable them to extricate the Union fleet, aground up Red River, Col. Bailey, formerly a Wisconsin lumberman, recalled his former methods for floating his saw-logs out of small streams when the water was low. He constructed "wing dams," and the stranded fleet was rescued. The value of our work is not to be reckoned by the trades that we have taught nor by the education we have imparted, but rather by the yearning of the minds of our boys to lead a better life; for this is what is to determine their future. A president of a polytechnic school gave me an hour's discourse on the transcendent importance of technological training for reform school boys. His range of vision embraced only workers in wood or iron. He did not realize that the average reform-school boy must necessarily fill a humble station.

The fact is that the best service we can render such boys is to place them, when reformed, in a good home. Especially is this true with those who have vicious homes or who are homeless. It is further true that a home in the country is preferable to one in the city, and there the ability to care for a horse and cow is a better preliminary education than to know how to do skilful work at a vise or forge.

City boys whose relatives live in the city should return to their friends; for, no matter how humble their station, a boy will never be content to be always separated from them. But the homeless city boy should never return to the slums whence he came. I believe that on the farm a boy is brought nearer his Creator, and that, thus removed from the temptations of city life, he can far more easily reach an honorable manhood. For this reason, I favor the farm as a part of the equipment of a reform school.

In order to cultivate the element of trustworthiness in character, as well as to classify boys better, I favor the family or cottage system. But I do not believe in the superlative virtue of any system. After all, it is the *work* that is done that brings the harvest.

"For forms of government let fools contest:
Whate'er is best administered is best."

I believe that, where warm-hearted, clear-headed, earnest men and women work for the good of others, the harvest will be bountiful.

I have been requested to give some of the results we have obtained in the Indiana Reform School for Boys, at Plainfield, Ind. For three years past, all the extra labor we have had has been utilized in making three millions of bricks, and placing them in the walls of several new buildings. The results have been highly satisfactory. Were you to visit our school to-day, you would find a brick-yard in full operation, making and setting in the kiln nearly twenty thousand bricks a day.

In another place, you would see twelve or fourteen boy brick-layers completing a large brick building, under the instruction of one man; and you would find that their work excels that previously done by contract. We have demonstrated that, backed by good discipline, a reform-school boy can be taught a trade in one-half the time it requires a boy in the outside world to learn it. Like most reformatories, we make all our own shoes and clothing, as well as doing the domestic work common to all. I believe that we have no right to hire men to do what the same men can teach our boys to do. In this way, our reform schools can be made the very best of manual labor schools.

Our boys, as a rule, are deficient in education, and therefore could not successfully master the course of polytechnic schools. But I hold that they can master all that properly comes within the province of manual labor training schools. In such schools, excellence of work is the central idea. In their work-shops, a boy is usually given as his first lesson instruction in the handling of a plane. The next step is to require him to make a mortise and tenon on opposite ends of the same piece of timber. When completed, it is severed in the middle, and tested. If defective, the faults are pointed out; and the boy is sent back to try again. He repeats his work until, at the end of seventy hours perhaps, he is expected to produce a mortise and tenon which would try the mettle of a master workman to excel. Now, what is there in this not suitable for reform-school boys? Surely, no one has a patent right on methods. Every model farmer should teach the same principles to his sons. These principles are not confined to work-shops nor to manual labor training schools. Every reform school should teach its inmates in this way, whether on the farm, in the garden, or in the shops.

In the selection of trades for boys, I favor teaching a boy the trade that his father follows, if that trade is an honorable one. It is an American idea, beautiful in theory, but bad in practice, that parents should wait and see what the boy is fitted for before he should be put to a trade. I have seen parents refuse to let their sons enter upon trades, because they preferred to wait and watch the inclination of their minds. Some are waiting and watching yet; and, thus far, their young hopefuls have manifested no particular desire to learn anything. Thus, we are allowing a race of Micawbers to grow up, "waiting for something to turn up." How different the methods of parents across the ocean! There, boys are put to trades, and compelled to master them. A boy's trade is his capital. Ben Franklin landed in Philadelphia without money and with scarcely an extra garment of clothing, and yet he was a capitalist. He had a trade and a good character, and he was rich in spite of his rags. Horace Greeley estimated the cost of rearing and educating a boy up to manhood over and above what he could earn at \$2,000. That is, a young man at his majority ought to be worth that much money to the State. This may seem a low estimate, but it will answer my purpose. How few of our young men to-day are worth \$2,000 to society! Many an able-bodied young man, valued at his real worth, would fall below zero. It may seem absurd to affix a money value to human beings, but I believe

it to be wise occasionally to do so. If every boy would apply this test to his own character, it would have a wholesome effect. "Weighed in the balance, and found wanting," would be pronounced in many a case. The young man who earns \$600 a year, reckoned by this standard, is worth \$10,000 loaned at six per cent. interest. In estimating the wealth of a State, we are apt to take the valuation of its personal property and its real estate. We forget that the real wealth of a State is in her honest yeomanry, the producers of all her wealth. If every hundred boys in our reformatories at twenty-one years of age could be made worth but \$1,000, they would aggregate \$100,000 to the wealth of the State. What a financial return this would be for the vast outlays made by the State to help them!

If, while we teach our boys to become thrifty through honest industry, we are careful to prepare them for the higher duties of life, many of them will become workers in the vineyard of the Master. Law-abiding, God-fearing young men are worth more to the State than figures can ever tell. One zealous worker in the vineyard, although he enters at the eleventh hour, may win the same reward as he who began with the dawn. On the other hand, one wicked person may drag untold numbers to perdition, and cost the State more than the cost of caring for hundreds.

One wicked woman in Indiana cost the State to prosecute her for her crimes more than the aggregate cost of its prisons for an entire year. One family of brothers cost society more than all the other criminals, until, at last, driven to frenzy by the law's delays and corruption of courts of justice, the people arose and hung them all to the trees of the forest. To convict one criminal often costs more than is spent for charity.

Every principle of economy, every impulse of benevolence, points to the great truth that "prevention is better than cure."

Our reform schools have one of the highest missions ever given to man. To stem the tide of evil is, indeed, a noble work, which, amid all its discouragements, is full of hope.

"Truth forever on the scaffold, wrong forever on the throne;
Yet that scaffold sways the future, and behind the dim unknown
Standeth God within the shadow, keeping watch above his own."

Our work is not ended with the imparting of knowledge as to what is right, but it includes the giving strength successfully to meet the duties of life.

When Theseus was sixteen years of age, his mother took him to the huge stone beneath which lay his father's sword and sandals, without which he could never enter Athens. The young hero's training had been such that he lifted the great stone away, and entered upon his life of glory.

The "little brown hands" of our boys and girls must ere long guide and control the destinies of this great nation. How important that their hands and hearts be made strong in all those higher virtues that ennoble and adorn human character!

LABOR AS A MEANS OF REFORMATION.

THE BEST PLAN OF LABOR FOR REFORMATORIES.

BY EUGENE SMITH,

NEW YORK.

The importance of making reformation a controlling aim in the administration of prisons has been incontestably demonstrated by experience. The general public, however, is apt to be sceptical about the possibility of accomplishing a general reformation on any large scale among the convict class. The prevailing tone of the press with reference to "prison reformers" is not sympathetic. These reformers—and the word is often pronounced with an intonation that conveys a sneer—are men who mean well, but they are not practical; they are *doctrinaires*, given to sentiment, pursuing an ideal which is benevolent indeed, but wholly unattainable. This patronizing pity for the reformers proceeds largely from ignorance of the actual results that have been achieved by reformatory methods, where they have been fairly tested; but it is also due, in no inconsiderable degree, to a misapprehension of what *reformation* really means.

The term is often used vaguely. I propose to try to formulate a precise expression of what *reformation*, as applied to the criminal class, actually imports. It does not involve anything that is impractical or sentimental or supernatural; it does not imply any visionary hope of Christianizing a large percentage of prison populations; it seeks to develop the prisoner's capabilities, but it does not contemplate his elevation, either morally or intellectually, far above the level of the better self that was within him before he fell into crime.

It is the effect of crime to produce an abnormal character. The criminal becomes different from other men in that the humane and social instincts are blunted; the indulgence of the passions paralyzes

the better part of himself; the want of an honorable avocation, with the invigorating contact with men, which gives strength to character, deprives him of any steadfast purpose in living; the will is enervated, and the whole nature is clouded by morbid notions of life.

Reformation is the restoration of the criminal to himself, in the sense in which it is said that the prodigal son "came to himself." It is the awakening of the natural sense of manhood, the revival of what is true and aspiring in his better nature, the supplanting of the morbid notions that were born of crime by the healthy and normal motives that commonly govern human conduct. Reformation, then, in the practical sense, means exactly this: such a recovery of the convict from a distorted to a normal character that he will thenceforth avoid crime, and lead a correct and law-abiding life.

The practical aim, in order to effect that reformation, must be to bring the convict under the dominion of those views of life, those principles of action, those motives of conduct, that regulate ordinary men in common life; to bring him back into harmony with the prevailing ideas and temper that control the community at large. I think it may be laid down as a broad proposition, pertaining to all prison training, that that discipline will best serve the purposes of reformation which most strongly develops in the prisoner the habits, the interests, the aspirations, and the motives of action that prevail in the general life of the people. The character which crime has rendered exceptional and abnormal must be assimilated to that of the society in which the prisoner, when discharged, is to mingle, and be made homogeneous with it: otherwise, the liberated convict will not be absorbed in the free community. The prisoner must be sent forth equipped with acquired habits and ideas sufficiently accordant with those prevailing around him to enable him to stand against the rude test of freedom. A prison training conducted on any less practical principle can only produce a factitious character, a hot-house growth, not robust enough to withstand the rigorous climate of real life.

The bearing and importance of these general principles will be more apparent when they are applied to the specific subject of Prison Labor, to which the present hour is devoted. Industrial labor is a necessity in prison for precisely the same reasons that make it the indispensable condition of healthy life and growth in any free community.

The incentives that inspire the energies of civilized society are, when stated, the simplest and tritest commonplaces. Every man

can enjoy, and is entitled to enjoy, the fruits of his own labor. A sense of the obligation of self-support and of the disgrace of dependence, the affections of home and the peaceful enjoyment of its comforts, nerve the arm of every common laborer; and, then, the possibility of achieving honor and success in life, and the conviction that these can only be attained by determined and persistent effort, — these are the simple forces that move the world and fire the ambition of men.

Turn now to almost any prison community, and you will find that the discipline practised there has not brought to bear upon the prisoners a single one of these healthful motives that move, outside, all the energies of life. These prisoners have worked; but they have not done so in order to enjoy the fruits of their labor, nor have they been taught by any experience that industry is the road to honor or success. They have not been thrown on their own responsibility, nor trained to practise self-restraint, self-reliance, or any manly virtue. They have not learned the obligation of self-support. On the contrary, they are told that the public is supporting them as its wards and dependents. Their labor has been to them penal servitude,—an integral part of their punishment. Is it a reasonable anticipation that convicts, who have passed through such a prison discipline, will, on their discharge, settle down with zest to an industrious and manly life?

Consider the character of the convict as he begins his prison life. He is averse to work. In most cases, it is through hatred of work, and through consequent idleness, that he has fallen into evil ways. If he has advanced far in crime, he regards all industrial labor with disdain, and prides himself on his ability to get on without plodding toil. His whole view of life is morbid. He feels himself, and he is, at enmity with the society around him. He has drifted on in life without an engrossing or definite purpose, without inward check of self-restraint, or outward impulse from human sympathy or respect, until his power of will has become impaired, and his sense of manhood blighted. This is a faint outline of the average convict character, the material upon which *reformation* has to perform its work.

So far as prison labor can be made to serve as a means of reformation, there are certain precise aims that it is now easy to designate.

In the first place, the *habit* of labor must be firmly implanted in the prisoner; and, in the next place, together with that must be developed the *love* of labor, and a sense of its inestimable worth as a source to him of hope and renewed life. *How* is it possible to

awaken in the convict a love of labor, and a sense of its value? The answer is found in the application of those principles I have been insisting on. If you would make a man of the convict, you must treat him like a man, and lead him to regard and treat himself like a man. The difficulty is that we deal with our convicts generally as we do with our cattle. We house them, feed them, and then work them, with the view of realizing out of their labor as large a profit as possible; but they themselves have no more personal interest in their industry, they themselves no more enjoy the fruit of their toil, than does the ox that drags the plough.

There ought, first, to be extirpated from the mind of the prisoner the idea that the State is bound to support and clothe him during his imprisonment. No such obligation rests on the State. The public owes no man a living, least of all the criminal who has defied the laws and made himself a public enemy. Bring the convict, on his entrance to the prison, to face and to understand the necessities that environ him. He has immediate wants: he needs food and clothing and bedding. He has no valid claim on the State for any of these, and the State refuses to supply them to any one of its able-bodied citizens; the State, however, opens one resource to the prisoner. While it will dispense no charity, it will give an opportunity to the prisoner to work in the prison, and to earn his living like an honest man.

Every convict, then, should be charged with the cost of his prison maintenance, and should be credited with the value of his labor. For the purpose of this account, the cost of maintenance will have to be fixed somewhat arbitrarily; for, if the interest on moneys invested and official salaries be included, the cost of maintenance would, in most cases, be larger than the utmost effort of the prisoner could meet. The charge to the prisoner, therefore, for his support should be so adjusted that the product of his labor will enable him to pay it, and to accumulate besides, by diligent application, a moderate and reasonable surplus.

The only result aimed at by this system of account, of charge and credit, between the prison and its inmates, is, of course, the psychological effect to be produced on the convict himself. It places him on precisely the same footing as that occupied by every working-man in a free society. It imposes on him the necessity of working for his living. He is not a dependent, he is not a slave working for a master who supports him. He will feel the self-respect that comes from the conviction that he is self-supporting. He receives and enjoys all the

fruits of his labor, and there will be awakened in him a sense of the value of his industry to himself as the means of satisfying his wants and of procuring such modest comforts as the prison rules may permit. He acquires the *habit* of supporting himself by his own industry, and the *habit* of earning money by honest labor, and the thrift of saving and accumulating the earnings he has worked hard to gain. These are the habits and incentives that make men industrious and frugal the world over, that protect law and order, and that keep the type of manhood from degeneration. For there is a mighty moral and uplifting power in industrial labor, whether practised by a race or an individual. It gives earnestness to life and strength to character: it keeps healthy currents in motion that are needed to prevent stagnation, and to scatter those pestilent vapors, socialistic and nihilistic, that exhale from deranged and obstructed industries.

The convict who goes out from prison on his final discharge with the acquired habit of self-support, with an experience of the value and uses of labor as a means of personal progress, with skill as a laborer and the determination to utilize it, with a small store of his own honest earnings to enable him to tide over the first few dangerous weeks until he can gain a foothold,—the prisoner so discharged bears as good and practical an equipment for the life before him as prison discipline can yield; for the habits and motives which the prison has given him are the very ones which, in real life, will best serve to make worthy citizens.

It is hardly possible, I think, to overestimate the importance of so revolutionizing prison management and prison sentiment as to abolish forever the idea that the convict is entitled to support from the State. When the prisoner is sick or disabled, the State will doubtless provide for him on the same humane principle on which it maintains hospitals and asylums; but, to the sturdy convict, the State discharges its full duty, when it affords him the facility of earning by hard work his own support. There is another prevalent idea, which is the counterpart of the notion that the convict is entitled to support from the State,—the idea that the labor of the prisoner does not rightly belong to himself, but belongs to the State, and can be justly utilized by the State to the profit of the public treasury. Whether that proposition is philosophically true or not, I do not care to discuss. Granting that it is true, if you will, I declare that the assertion of such right on the part of the State has a most pernicious effect on the prisoner's reformation. If the prisoner is in a state of slavery, having no right to the fruit of his own labor,

owing all his energies to the service of the State, what possible basis of influence remains by which to develop in him habits of independence, self reliance, thrift, and self-respect? Without questioning, then, the abstract right or wrong of the claim that the State is entitled to all the fruits of the prisoner's labor, I say that good policy and the public interest demand that that claim should not be enforced, that it should be expressly waived, that there should be conceded to the prisoner the same right that every other workman has to own the proceeds of his labor, but coupled with that right the same obligation that every other workman has to earn his own support. The relation of the State to the convict, in the matter of prison labor, should be changed, so far as proper discipline will admit, from the relation of master and slave to that of employer and employé.

It may be said this is a mere matter of words. The practical result will be the same: the State will pay for the prisoner's support, and will receive the proceeds of his labor, just as it always has done. I answer that the pecuniary result, so far as the prison is concerned, may remain substantially unchanged; but, for the prisoner himself, the difference between the two systems is as radical and is precisely the same as the difference between labor for one's own account and benefit and slave labor for the sole benefit of another. In the one case, reformation, which is the development of a self-supporting and self-respecting citizen, is feasible. In the other case, it is all but impossible.

The natural mode of regulating the proposed accounts between the prison and its convicts would seem to be to open a separate account with each individual prisoner. But experience shows a practical objection to strictly separate accounts, which a moment's reflection will verify. The natural division of mankind is into families; and the absolute isolation of the individual is unhealthy, because it is abnormal. The convict must be trained for life in a community whose members owe to each other mutual offices and kindly charities. The maintenance of a distinctly separate account with each convict fails to develop a communal spirit, and brings into undue prominence the selfish temper. The experience of Europe has proved that better results will flow from the association of small numbers of convicts into separate families, little communities or partnerships, with each of which a joint account may be kept. This is only another illustration of the broad principle which will be found, I believe, to underlie all successful schemes for reformation,—especially, so far as prison

industries are concerned, the principle marks the almost indispensable condition of reformatory results,—the principle, namely, that the prison community must be assimilated, as far as sound discipline will admit, to the free community outside, and must be moulded in its habits, its incentives, its aims, on the model of the actual life without, for which its members are to be fitted.

The subject of prison labor is so broad that, in the space allotted me, I could not hope to do more than touch upon one or two phases of it. But the principles of which I have been treating will furnish, unless I am altogether in the wrong, a test that may be of value in judging of the utility and of the best mode of administering any form of prison labor. In the way of application of the views already suggested, I desire to occupy the very few minutes remaining in a hasty and necessarily superficial glance at the available systems of convict labor.

The contract system is falling into disuse. In several States, it has been abolished by statute, and the public temper is obviously in favor of testing some other expedient. There is no reason to regret this evident tendency, for the contract system has never served the cause of reformation. The defects of the system are akin to those that appear in more aggravated form in the lease system of the Southern States. It is sufficient for the present purpose to say in condemnation of both these systems that they place the convict in a relation to labor that has no counterpart in common life. The condition most analogous to it was that of negro slavery. It is difficult so to administer these systems as to develop in the convict such habits of self-support, of self-respect, of reliance on his own exertions, of thrift, as shall serve to uphold him when discharged.

The public account system I hold to be, ideally, the best. It places the prisoner in a relation to the State which is closely analogous, so far as his labor is concerned, to the relation existing everywhere between the workman and his employer. The training and habits it imparts will continue, without break, to be serviceable to the convict after his discharge. But there are many reasons which make the public account system at the present time practically unattainable. Its successful working demands an entire exemption of the prison from *political* control, which it is now Utopian to expect. It demands a higher type of personal character and of business training in prison wardens than is now to be generally found at the command of the State. It demands a large investment of capital by the State, which the short-sighted legislation of the times, measuring

the value of a prison system by its pecuniary returns, cannot be expected to venture upon. The time is not fully ripe, in my opinion, for the general introduction of the public account system; nor will that be so until public sentiment is enlightened and aroused to a fuller comprehension of prison science, to a broader realization of the vast social and economic importance of the prison problem.

The system known as the "piece-price plan" seems best adapted, as a forerunner of the public account system, to meet the exigencies of the present time. The piece-price plan has, unjustly, been represented to be a mere modification of the contract system. It resembles much more closely the public account system. Where shoes, for instance, are manufactured on the public account, the prison buys the raw material, tools and machinery, makes the shoes, and sells the completed product to the dealer. Under the piece-price plan, the dealer advances the raw material to the prison, supplies the tools and machinery, or the tools and machinery may be furnished by the prison; and the dealer agrees in advance to pay a stipulated price per pair for all the shoes that may be manufactured. In both cases, the labor of the prisoners is under the exclusive control of the prison authorities, and this is the feature which is vital to the interests of reformation. The prison is thus freed from the presence of a contractor with his agents and overseers, forming a disturbing medium of contact with the world outside. It is freed from the extraneous dictation which, with show of right, prescribes the branch of labor at which each prisoner shall be set, fixes the stint of a day's work, influences necessarily, more or less, the discipline of the prison, and drives all the industry of the prison under the impetus of the contractor's pecuniary interest. The division of prison administration between a contractor and a warden — the former managing the labor of the convicts, and the latter controlling their discipline — presents in itself an incongruity. Why, the labor is the most essential element in the discipline! Both must be under the unrestrained regulation of a central power. The varying capacities of individual convicts, their adaptation to different kinds and degrees of labor, the necessity of equipping each convict with the knowledge, not merely of some single process, but of a complete trade or mode of employment by which he can gain a living when discharged, — these all require delicate and intelligent adjustment by an authority which must be unqualified and supreme. Then the plan of debit and credit accounts between the prison and its convicts, which I have advocated, and which is capable of being used with vast power as a reforming agency, is also easily

adaptable under the piece-price system. In all the particulars that are most vital to the promotion of convict reformation, the piece-price plan embodies many of the advantages inherent in the public account system; and it is superior to that system in one respect that should make it extremely attractive to the public taste: I believe it can, with comparative ease under a skilful management, be so administered as to render the prison absolutely self-supporting.

In the views I have suggested, it has been my aim to give emphasis to a single thought,—to enforce the proposition that reformation is the restoring to society, as loyal members, those whom crime has made enemies and aliens; and to insist that the practical way of accomplishing such restoration is to *humanize* the convict, to *re-form* him into the likeness of other men, and inspire him with the purposes, hopes, ambitions, that animate and sustain the free community. I have made no exclusive reference to the treatment of *juvenile* offenders. If the views presented are correct, they apply with tenfold cogency to youthful convicts, whose characters are more susceptible and pliant. But I believe the principles are of universal application, and that every prison, whether for adults or for the young, should be made, in the aims and the methods of its discipline, a *reformatory*.

THE REFORM SCHOOL OF WASHINGTON.

BY HON. W. B. SNELL.

The Reform School of the District of Columbia was established by Act of Congress upon the "family system," and has been in successful operation about fifteen years. By reference to the superintendent's last report, p. 7, it appears that the whole number of boys received since opening is 989; whole number of deaths, 7; rate of mortality, less than three-fourths of 1 per cent. Average age of boys received, 13.4. Number of boys in institution June 30, 1883, 140; committed during the year by the Supreme Court, District of Columbia, 10; Police Court, District of Columbia, 60; United States Circuit Court, 6; President Board of Trustees, 24; returned to the school, 3; total, 103. Average during the year, 153; number June 30, 1884, 163. The school receives boys under sixteen, and can detain them until twenty-one, unless sooner reformed. The youngest boy in the school is eight years of age, the oldest nineteen. The school is divided into two groups, designated as families "A" and "B." Family "A" contained (1884) 93; family "B," 70.

Of these families, the superintendent in his report of 1883, p. 12, says: "We have two divisions or families of boys, each occupying a separate building, in which their respective school-rooms are located. Two officers have charge of each family, and they are directly responsible to the superintendent for the general conduct and discipline of the same. Each family is divided into two classes or grades, according to age and advancement in study; each school grade having a daily session of from three to four hours. During the winter months, an hour or two each evening is also spent in the school-room, but not under its usual restrictions as to discipline and class study. One evening each week is devoted to the study of the Sabbath-school lessons, and another to innocent games and amusements, the boys often entertaining themselves by songs and recitations."

The superintendent says that, while corporal punishment is not prohibited, it is only permitted after all other means fail: "Our main reliance for discipline and individual improvement is upon the report of the conduct of each boy made daily in the Record or Badge Book, by the teacher or officer in charge. His standing in the grade is his own making. Merit or demerit marks for good or bad conduct are placed to his debit or credit in open account. And, under existing rules, it is possible for any boy to secure his honorable discharge in one year from his commitment."

Moral and religious instruction is regularly imparted by services every Sunday afternoon, and Sabbath-school sessions in the morning at half-past ten. Ministers of widely different religious views address the children; but the Sabbath-school is conducted by the teachers, with the assistance of the superintendent and matron.

Though the Reform School has had a corporate existence since 1866, the first two boys were admitted to it Jan. 13, 1870.

The first location of the school upon the government farm on the Potomac River proved unhealthy; and Congress, on the 15th of May, 1872, made an appropriation of \$100,000 for the present site. It now consists of three hundred and fifty acres, and is called Mount Lincoln, an elevation overlooking the surrounding country for many miles. It is not only a beautiful spot, but the good water, ample area, and elevated location are guarantees of good health and abundant means of employment to the boys temporarily sent there for reformation.

In his report for 1883, the superintendent says, "Our industries are not so varied as we could wish to have them." Chair-making gives employment to all the younger boys, when not attending the regular school session. Plain tailoring and shoemaking are taught to all the boys that can be profitably employed in the manufacture of shoes and clothing for the use of the school.

No income is derived from these industries, and a large proportion of the best labor is expended on the farm during the summer months;

and it is believed that the employment not only pays better, but is more agreeable to the boys than the mechanical work which can be furnished them by the institution.

The population of the district is rapidly increasing, having advanced from 131,000 in 1870, the date of the practical organization of the school, to 203,459 in 1885; but Congress has failed to enlarge the capacity of the school correspondingly with the growth of the population, and to-day we can send boys from the courts only by permission of the trustees of the school. This should not be. Congress should always provide for any possible excess of boys beyond the capacity of the school. The trustees, superintendent, matron, and teachers take a deep interest and just pride in the success and good name of the school; but they can only reach the perfection they aim at through the intelligent co-operation of a broad and liberal Congressional policy. Notwithstanding many appeals have been made to Congress for a reformatory for girls, it has so far been impossible to obtain the passage of a bill giving the District this much needed institution. While admitting the importance of the measure in general, no sufficient agreement upon the details has been attained to insure success in a body constituted like our Congress, especially as the District is without representation and vote in determining so important a matter. It is to be hoped that the difficulties that have hitherto proved insuperable may be speedily overcome, and that we may be able to add a well-endowed and successfully managed reformatory for girls.

THE ELMIRA REFORMATORY.

AN ADDRESS BY CHARLES DUDLEY WARNER.

PHONOGRAPHICALLY REPORTED.

If I were to say what one thing was most necessary in this country at this moment, it would be discipline. I mean by this intellectual as well as moral discipline, a training or discipline that must obtain in all our education, and which is a little relaxed, or being relaxed, in many of our colleges and higher institutions of learning, where it is thought proper to leave to the discrimination of men not yet come to their majority the kind of training and discipline they should have or work in life; the sort of discipline which consists in making a person still in his youth do something that he does not want to do,—

ordinary routine in college, the ordinary routine of prayers, of study-hours, of recitation. The more I see of life, the more I believe in the value of these disciplinary means. If they have not been enjoyed at home, all the more reason why they should be enforced in the colleges and institutions where youth are educated. I speak of this, because this sort of discipline lies at the root of education. The modern notion that to be educated is to have a certain amount of knowledge, not to have a mind disciplined, lies, very likely, at the root of our failure, where we do fail and have failed in the matter of prison reform. Because, if minds from the better part of society, notwithstanding the advantages of home culture and home training, need in every step of their development the discipline of routine, of obedience, of the crossing of the inclinations, then the waifs, the failures of society, those who fall into the clutches of the law, need it still more in any attempt at rehabilitation.

I want to say further, in regard to the whole system of model prisons, this: It had been in my official duty from time to time for ten years to visit a great many of the prisons of the country. It has certainly been a very pleasant thing, so far as society itself is concerned, to see the emergence out of barbarism in the manner in which we have been treating prisoners congregated in penitentiaries. I have seen, as you have, the evolution of the prison into that which in some cases is not unlike a very fair hotel, where the prisoners are boarded and lodged, and presented with no bill at the end. But I found this: that whatever the prison, whether it was well warmed and well ventilated, whether the food was good, whether in short the prisoner was petted or whether he was under the old rigor of the barbaric prison, the result to the man when he went out was about the same. I happened a year ago to go from a prison of the old sort to a prison of the better sort. You know what I saw in the old sort. You know the men in uniform that I saw there; you know the prison look, the look of dejection, of abandonment, the sour, sullen look, showing all lack of interest in life. You know the feeling that one has after visiting such a prison, a feeling that one cannot get rid of in two weeks. I went from that to the better sort, a prison well ordered, expensively built, exceedingly comfortable, so far as physical comforts went. But I found the same sort of prisoners, men no more likely to go out better, but rather worse. I found the same heaviness of countenance, the same inertness, the same physical and mental discouragement. And it seemed to me then, and seems to me now, that if we can do nothing better than that, if really we can-

not touch the man's life and character, we would better, on the second or third offence, or whenever it was decided that the man belongs to the criminal class, kill him at once, and be done with it. He is a danger and a constant expense, and of no earthly use to himself or to anybody; and he ought not to be allowed to propagate his species. If that is true, if all our philosophy, all our science, does not enable us to take a step farther than the temporary amelioration of his physical condition for from three to ten years, we are certainly far from having attained any very high philosophic or scientific ground.

I went to Elmira; and it is with reference to these things that I wish to tell you what I saw there.

The Elmira Penitentiary is, in its outward appearance, a handsome edifice, built, not very well, but with some little pretensions to architecture, for the accommodation of about six hundred people. It is well ventilated. The cells are of two or three sizes, fitted for a graded prison in that respect. The Reformatory receives convicts from any part of the State, in the discretion of the judge, who are between the ages of sixteen and thirty, and who are then convicted of the first penitentiary offence. It is called technically a juvenile reformatory, but in all the prisons there are very many prisoners between the ages of sixteen and thirty. A very large proportion of all the convicts who are there for the second and third time are under thirty. In all the prisons that you visit, you are struck with the youthfulness of the occupants. So that, while this is a prison for first offenders, yet ranging up to the age of thirty there is there a very large number of men just as fully furnished for criminal life, just as determinedly set in it, as you will find anywhere else. The *accident* that they have not been before caught and confined *is* an accident, very likely. They are, for the most part, men who have been brought up from boyhood to a criminal life. They belong, in any philosophical classification, to the criminal class. So that the experiment there is really an experiment with difficult and hardened criminals.

Before I go further, I want to say another thing about education. The notion very largely prevails that it is not a proper thing to educate a criminal; that it may only make him a greater adept in crime; that it will give him intellectual facility added to his moral obliquity; and that he will become an accomplished rascal. It is my observation that the criminal is not an intellectual being, that the criminal class and the class that will be criminal are low in physical

as well as mental and moral condition. They are men usually given to vices through inheritance or by carnal and vicious tastes. They are not intellectually capable in any way. Their will is gone, their motive power is lost. They are, therefore, men who must be approached, if approached at all in any reformatory, on the intellectual side. I do not believe at all in the rose-water treatment of many prisons. I have an entire disbelief in holidays, in flowers, in tracts, in the little dabbling of sentiment that would make a prison a pleasant place for persons to visit. You must go more radically at the man himself, and come at him physically, intellectually, and morally, in order to effect anything at all.

The prison at Elmira is in charge of Mr. Brockway, who has organized and originated this, to me, entirely novel treatment of prisoners. When the prisoner is brought in, he is submitted to a very thorough personal examination by the superintendent. There is a large ledger kept, in which a page or pages are devoted to his case. The examination goes into his heredity: who was his father, who was his mother, and even who were his grandparents, if it is possible to ascertain? what sort of lives did they all lead? where was he born? had he any home life? how long did he stay at home? had he any education? the ancestry of the boy as showing the tendency of the man. An examination is also made of him physically; and this interested me very much, because it is not a mere examination of whether he is fat or lean or consumptive, or with tendency to some other disease, but of the quality of the man's flesh: is there any fineness in him, or is he coarse in his physical fibre? Next, a careful examination is made of him mentally: what intellect has he? what quickness? what solidity? has he any training? is he bright or dull? Then a thorough diagnosis of his past life is made, relating not to crime, but to his capacity for good. After that is prognosticated with increasing certainty the sort of treatment that is best for him. Before that, he is, of course, washed and clad, and made fit for association in a decent prison. At first, he is put into the second grade.

In the institution there are three grades,—first, intermediate, and third. The new-comers go into the second grade. From that, they may go up or down according to their behavior. When a man is put into the second grade, he is told the length of his sentence, the maximum length. He is also told what he has to do to free himself from the institution. That is, he has to make so many marks, in order to get out. He is informed what is expected of him in a disciplinary

way. Before going there, I could never understand how an indeterminate sentence could be best for criminals and for society. I never before saw any tribunal that could ascertain when a man was fit to go out of prison. The easiest thing in the world is to be religious and be a hypocrite and not be a bit changed. How are you going to know when a man is to go out? that was always the sticker with me. A prisoner may be kept for the maximum time for which he may be sentenced, or, under the discipline of this prison, he may leave within a year.

In all the grades there are distinctions of dress and treatment. In the second grade, he is not much removed from the citizen in appearance. He wears clothes of a brown color, and a Scotch cap. In the first grade, which he may reach by good conduct, he wears a blue uniform, with soldier's cap. In the third grade, to which he may descend by bad conduct, he is put into a red garment. He looks like a criminal in his apparel. It is a stigma on him.

These three grades have different privileges. The first-grade men occupy better cells and have better fare. They dine together, and in the dining-hall sit at little tables, eight or ten at a table, as at a hotel. When I visit the institution, I always like to go into that dining-hall, it is so well conducted and the men are so polite to each other. When the first-grade men march, they walk four abreast, in honorable ranks. They are officered by men chosen from their own grade. They are also the officers of the second grade. They have also certain disciplinary duties in the institution. All this is openly known. They are overlooked by the officers of the institution, who report any one guilty of dereliction of duty. The second-grade men take their meals in their cells, and march in ranks of two. The third-grade men march in the prison lock-step, and take their meals in their cells, which are not so comfortable as the other cells. The prisoners feel these distinctions the more keenly the longer they stay there.

The superintendent has to decide for the new-comer what is the best sort of work for him to do, for there are several things taught there; next, into what school shall he go. The code of behavior is very strict. The discipline in little things that go to make up conduct in Elmira is exceedingly minute, so that it is impossible for a man to submit himself to it without feeling it very thoroughly. In the work-shop, he is marked, as well as for his progress and conduct in school. In the school, he is marked for his attainment, his diligence, and his progress. He may be in the primary class or pursu-

ing higher studies ; but, wherever he is, he is required to come to a certain standard, according to his capacity, and he is marked on that. He has to earn a certain number of marks before he can change his condition from the second grade to the first and be on his way out of the prison. He has to earn these marks by a kind of discipline in all respects excessively repugnant to him. He has to earn them not to-day, but day after day, for months. He has to behave himself perfectly, so that he gets his nine marks without any dereliction. After he has earned all his marks, he is put into the first grade ; and, after six months more, if his marks are perfect and other things are favorable, he is entitled to a conditional release. The interest to me in that was this : that no man can submit himself to that threefold discipline, I do not care whether he does it willingly or unwillingly, for one or two years, without being decidedly changed. I do not believe it is possible to put a man through a drill of that kind without changing him. At first, very likely, he may be a hypocrite ; but that cannot last. It is sometimes a long time before they come down to business ; but, in a majority of cases, they do come down. It is said that some men are incorrigible, that they cannot be touched and reformed. I am not certain that that is not true. There are some snarls that cannot be straightened, and perhaps there are some men. I remember Mr. Brockway said at my first visit that about twenty per cent. were incorrigible, but that the statistics of the institution show that eighty per cent. of the men who went away remained beyond the law, or, as some one said, they were taught to "steal honestly." The second time I was there, Mr. Brockway said he did not know about that incorrigible business, he did not feel so sure as a few weeks before about the per cent. He said that he made out a list of ten men that he had a right to send to Auburn, who should be sent there, if they were incorrigible ; but he did not send them. In about a week from that time, two of the men got a start, and were doing very well. When I was there later, that list had disappeared. Those ten men were doing as well as any one, and likely to keep on doing well.

When a man has gone on his three-ply duty, and has come to the end of a year with a perfect record, then he must submit himself to the judgment of the board of directors, who are responsible to the State and not to the superintendent. The case with all its aspects is submitted to them, and the question is asked whether the man shall go out. If he goes out, he is paroled for six months ; but he is never sent out without a place being provided for him. That place is pro-

vided often by the man's friends, often by the men who have employed him before; for this seminary at Elmira is getting to have a good reputation for turning out honest boys. It is asked every month to place men from there. It is a very good diploma to graduate there. The number of its correspondents is increasing, so that it is easier and easier to place men. The men who are sent out are required to report every month as to their condition, and this must be certified to by some one known to the institution. When that has gone on for six months, and the man is earning his own living and is behaving himself, the release is made absolute by a vote of the board, and nothing more is heard of it.

It seems a little absurd that criminals should be educated as college boys are, and yet education there is carried to as high a pitch in some respects as in some of our high schools. It is carried on especially in the direction which will go to make a man a good and intelligent citizen,—to make him fit to exercise the right of suffrage, and to do his duty to the State with understanding. Ordinary political economy, history, English and American literature, and branches of that sort, are taught, and taught very thoroughly, because these young men are not studying as some other young men do, to satisfy some one's pride at home, but *to get out*; and they give their minds to it. They have to pass examinations, and are marked on their reports.

They have among themselves a weekly newspaper. By the way, I recommend it as the most decent family newspaper I know in the country. It has nothing in it that would injure a prisoner, and you cannot afford to send some of our papers to the prisons.

I was much interested in a very high development that I found there. A lawyer, of Elmira, has every Sunday morning what is called a practical morality class. It is made up of a little more than two hundred of the six hundred in the institution, chosen from the three grades according to their ability. There came up in connection with this a very curious psychological fact bearing upon this relation of morality to education. I found that the very much larger proportion of these higher men were selected from the first grade: there were very few from the third grade. The superintendent made out a table showing exactly how, from time to time, like an isothermal line, conduct went along with intelligence. The best behaved men were the best scholars: the moral training went along with the intellectual. It is an exceedingly interesting table.

In this practical morality class, they were finishing the reading of Socrates from Prof. Jowett's translation. The class was as remark-

able in its intellectual quickness, readiness, and ability to understand the problems of the Socratic teaching as any college class I ever saw. I do not think that I ever heard among young men such apt and wonderfully intuitive discussion as they carried on there. What happened one morning? Here is an institution made up perhaps one-half of Catholics, a good many Jews, and people of all denominations and of no denomination. They had been studying and discussing Socrates, weighing all the abstract questions of right and wrong and morality; and that morning they came to the conductor of the class, and said to him, "We would like to go on to the New Testament, and study the character of Christ!" I do not suppose that all the good clergymen of the State of New York could have drawn that class to the study of Christ in five hundred years. But they came naturally to it as a study of morality; and the next term they were studying the New Testament, and studying it without prejudice.

I believe that a State prison should pay. I do not believe that the State ought to support any man, because he is a criminal, in idleness. I asked about this place, and found that it did not pay. It cost the State about \$30,000 a year to carry it on; and, as we were talking about building a new prison in Connecticut, that seemed to me a lamentable fact. After I went a second time, I thought it over more; and it came to me in this light. At our Connecticut prison, we get back sixty per cent. of those whom we have educated there as criminals. They are very accomplished. They come back a great many times. We get back, I say, sixty per cent., that is about the average in all the State prisons of the country. Here is an institution that takes men of this character, and eighty per cent. not only do not come back, but are made productive, decent, and respectable citizens, while it only costs \$30,000: all the rest the men earn themselves. They earn it in various trades, besides thus fitting themselves for their own occupation. Classes in stenography, in telegraphy, in modelling, in drawing, are all taught; and the men are fitted to work in the world, and it only costs \$30,000! Why, it costs more than that, under the old system, to catch the men and try them and bring them back to us again. Thus, the State is making and saving money by this institution.

The first thing that struck me after I became familiar with the Reformatory was the absolute change in the faces of the men. All the insensibility, the heaviness, had gone out of them physically as well as mentally; and moral energy was awakened. They ran up and down stairs, and moved briskly; and the whole aspect of the person was changed.

There is one very serious objection to any kind of institution life. That is to say, it makes the men dependent. The more we can get rid of institution life in every way, the better for us. The trouble at Elmira, as everywhere else, is that the men are fed, lodged, and clothed, and everything is done for them.

This trouble of the dependence of the men of course obtains there. They get good food, because the superintendent says he gets better work out of the men when he gives them good food; but he finds that they are to a certain degree dependent, and he thinks of putting the whole thing on the "European plan." There is a good deal of sense in that. Let a man go into a restaurant, and order what he chooses, knowing what he earns. He would very likely overeat at first, but the process would bring him down to the basis of knowing how to spend his money as well as to earn it. I do not know any one but Mr. Brockway who could carry out this plan; but I believe he can make that institution fully independent, earning its money, buying its food and its clothes, just as people are required to do outside.

THE MINNESOTA STATE REFORM SCHOOL.

BY D. W. INGERSOLL.

This school has been in operation for seventeen years. There are now in it one hundred and forty-three boys and eighteen girls of the average age of about fourteen years. The average term of detention is about two years and eight months. The maximum age of those committed is sixteen years. The law does not specify any minimum age. The youngest ever committed was six years old. Of seven hundred boys and girls committed, five hundred and forty-two have been sent out; and the larger number of them, at least ninety per cent., are reported as doing well. Some are holding positions of trust, and many are useful workers in the community. The general conduct of the boys is good. Instances are very rare in which a boy exhibits anything of a rebellious spirit. The special aim of the management is to cultivate self-respect and to lay the foundations of character by the inculcation of right principles, by enforcing habits of industry, and by education.

There are no bars or high walls to detain the boys. An ordinary fence only separates the buildings and play-ground from the public highway. There is a liking for orderly and regular living in most

boys, after being for a time accustomed to it; and the inmates of our school are, as a whole, contented and cheerful.

Our department for girls is managed in a similar manner, but is entirely distinct. A steady, strong hand of authority, with a careful regard to justice and humanity in their treatment, with strictly enforced duties and equally regular hours for recreation, does much to bring the girls into a healthful state of mind; and the same hopes and possibilities for the future are held up before them as before any boy.

The boys are divided into two classes according to their age, each class under the special care of matrons and teachers, occupying separate buildings, but mingling in school, at work, and on the playground. Their education is regarded as of the utmost importance.

The four hours that each boy spends in school daily are probably all that the average boy can advantageously give to books. Five or six hours more are given to work,—farming, horticulture, cabinet-making, tinsmith-work, etc. Some are instructed in the domestic work of the school, baking and cooking. It is the intention to send out no boys who are not measurably ready for self-support.

Every season records some attempts at escape, usually by those who have not been long under the influence of the school. Most of these have been followed and returned. The last escape was in November, 1884. Those in charge have been very successful in inspiring the boys with such an *esprit de corps*, such a pride in their honor, and ambition to increase it, that the older pupils watch anxiously that no one shall break over the bonds and bring discredit on the rest. The whole school is given a yearly camp on a lake in the open country, some miles away from the institution, lasting nearly a week. They march out with music and banners flying. Boats and fishing tackle are supplied, and the shouts and songs testify to their enjoyment. Half a dozen, perhaps, do picket duty by day; and a watch is kept at night. The boys understand that, if any should try to leave, the privilege will be forfeited another year; and so with the boy-guards. Under the influence of good feeling and honor and hope and fear, this plan has been carried out successfully for twelve years, without the escape of a single boy. This indulgence becomes a strong incentive to good conduct. Life is not all work, and they are not debarred from all the pleasures of innocent boyhood.

The board of managers and officers of the institution have cause for thankfulness and encouragement that the years have yielded such satisfactory results. Seeing the number saved from vice and

worthlessness by careful effort during the few critical years of their lives, it appears that all needed in many cases of youthful misdoing is only to have a chance ; but, considering the discouraging circumstances of heredity, early association with evil, habits of wrong doing, and the influences that are very apt to close around a boy on his release, depressing his mental, moral, and physical nature, we are impressed with the difficulties of the work, and feel that only the most judicious unwearied effort, with the blessing of Heaven, can make it permanently successful.

VII.

Prison Reform.

THE EVOLUTION OF THE PRISON.

ABSTRACT OF A PAPER BY HON. HENRY M. HOYT.

We can assume, at the outset, that there is no safe *a priori* route to the conclusions to be reached on the subject of prison discipline. There can be no absolute demonstration of a problem involving so many and so variant factors. The best we can do, as in all other questions in social science, when the forces in operation are conflicting, antagonistic, and hostile, is to try to find a general resultant, *to catch tendencies*. The human family has had a long and unpleasant struggle with criminals; and it is, unhappily, not over. In the primitive days and during the later great nomadic movements of the race, there was not time to stop for trial and incarceration. For a man who would not conform to the only conditions under which society was possible, the prompt, speedy, and effective punishment was death. It is considered that the greatest single step in the progress of civilization was taken when slavery was substituted for death. The captive or convict then passed into a *status*, once for all, which lasted throughout his life. His doom was fixed. It was a blind, aimless way of meeting the difficulty, varied by "cutting off," by banishment, ostracism, and the more modern transportation. But the State, so far as there was a state, had unloaded him. His master usurped the relation of the State. Municipal control over him ceased, and the criminal was dismissed from public concern. This condition of things lasted down to dates far more recent than we are apt to think.

The feudal system remanded pretty much all municipal administration to the holders of the great fiefs. The power to punish and imprison was one of the very badges of feudal power. It resulted in a vast system of safe and, as we know, often cruel places of confinement. The tower and its "donjon keep" was a feature of every castle erected by the lord of the domain; and they exist, many of

them, as jails and prisons to this day. Through all this *régime* there was no system, purpose, or discipline. Society had not reached the first glimmer of the modern function of "imprisonment," and such a thing as "administration" was unthought of. In a general way, the public welfare must have been contemplated; but we may as well suspend judgment until we can better anticipate what civilians, a couple of hundred years hence, may think of our present methods.

This congeries of prison houses was the basis upon which only a hundred and fifty years ago was commenced the agitation of prison reform upon which you are still engaged. Says an essayist on the subject: "We shall find that thus modern Europe was crowded with prisons long before it occurred to any one to think that there was some determinate object to which they could be applied. This is a fact, remarkable and important, because, although it is upon a prison, either in a pure or modified shape, that the eyes of all penal reformers ever rest, as the means by which repression and reformation are to be carried out, yet few remember that it has not been by any process of induction or from a general examination of all known or possible methods of repression or reformation that the prison thus exclusively occupies the field, but because some fortuitous events, in feudal history, brought the building so named into existence as a feature of the social system of Europe."

It is about one hundred and fifty years since Col. Oglethorpe secured a parliamentary inquiry into such prisons. He called enlightened attention to their inhumanities, their useless atrocities and cruelties. These were the days of refinements in cruelty and ingenuity in instruments of torture. And since John Howard entered upon the first solemn, serious contemplation of the objects and purposes of the imprisonment of convicts, with a determinate social purpose, it is only a hundred years. Since his day, we have been compelled to look upon the convict in the double relation he sustains to society: first, as the object of punishment; second, as a human being who, sooner or later, will be released, and resume his contact with his fellow-men.

Society since then has learned that it has about exhausted its power in the infliction of legal statutory penalties, when it has consigned the convict to incarceration, with labor in some form. The resources for physical punishment reach no further than imprisonment, with some form of disciplinary treatment, which excludes corporeal torture, and even purely afflictive unproductive exertion.

This is great progress. Let us see what we have eliminated from

crime-punishment (I mean crimes other than the most heinous),—death, “cutting off from the people,” slavery, ostracism, banishment, transportation, bodily torture, tread-mills, shot-drills, Sir George Grey’s “cranks,” thumbscrews,—in general, the instruments which merely cause pain. It remains to eliminate all instrumentalities which work deterioration in health of body, intellect, or conscience.

We have come along lines wide apart in distance and direction, but they are converging; and it would seem that their vanishing point is not far beyond.

The factors which the State controls are not numerous. They are the physical structures, the prison and enforced labor, with official agents invested with due authority. They may enforce solitude, in a cell; silence in work, separate or congregate; instruction, industrial, mental, moral. These are the agencies. How shall they be handled?

Under Howard’s instigation, Sir William Blackstone framed an Act, which was passed by Parliament in 1778, being so far as I know the first attempt to formulate any philosophical scheme of prison discipline which distinctively had reformation in view. Howard himself, however, reports as the result of his visits to the prisons in Holland that that thoughtful, industrious, and humane people had gradually found its way to a discipline of industry, order, and cleanliness. The Act of Parliament recited its object to be “by sobriety, cleanliness, and medical assistance, by a regular series of labor, by solitary confinement during the intervals of work, and by due religious instruction, to preserve and amend the health of the unhappy offenders, to inure them to habits of industry, to guard them from pernicious company, to accustom them to serious reflection, and to teach them both the principles and practice of every Christian and moral duty.”

Here are all the desiderata of prison discipline. Theoretically, we have not advanced on them. Here are all the factors of the problem. Some of them have been, under experience, rejected; or, rather, the undue expansion of the power of some of them has worked unfavorably or fatally.

The Philadelphia Society for the Alleviation of the Miseries of Public Prisons promptly took up the question in 1785. In order to avoid the infliction of personal violence, they hit upon the idea of continued solitude, without labor, books, or any means of occupation to mind or body. The modifications in practice which Quaker humanity made of this theoretical project doubtless mitigated its effects in the old Walnut Street prison. Its great simplicity commended its adoption. It was adopted in several of the States of the

Union, and was zealously pushed to its perilous conclusions. Crawford was sent from England to report officially upon the practical workings of the plan. As carried out in New York, he reports: "A trial of solitary confinement, day and night, without labor, was made at Auburn in the year 1822 for two months, upon eighty of the most hardened convicts. They were each confined in a cell only 7 feet long, $3\frac{1}{2}$ feet wide, and 7 feet high. They were, on no account, to be permitted to leave the cell during that long period on any occasion. They had no means of obtaining any change of air nor opportunity of taking exercise. The most disastrous consequences were naturally the result. Several persons became insane, health was impaired and life endangered. The discipline of the prison at that period was one of unmixed severity. There was no moral or religious instruction of any kind communicated within its walls, nor any consolation administered, by which the convict was enabled to bear up against the cruelty of this treatment." Of the trial of the same system in Maine, but under more onerous conditions, Crawford says: "The diet during confinement was bread and water only. Thus immured and without any occupation, it will excite no surprise that a man who had been sentenced to pass seventy days in one of these miserable pits hung himself after four days' imprisonment. Another condemned to sixty days also committed suicide on the twenty-fourth day."

Solitude then, "without labor, books, or any means of occupation to mind or body," broke down as a rational element in prison discipline.

Then the virtue of silence, with congregate work, was tried. The principle of absolute solitude was still enforced while the prisoners were in their cells; but they were drafted out into large rooms, where they worked in common. In these, the characteristic feature of the discipline was carried out by their working in total silence, never looking at each other or making any sign, and never even seen glancing at a prison officer or a strange visitor. "To see," says an observer, "a hundred desperadoes thus pursuing their silent labors under the vigilant inspection of no more than five or six officers, gave the visitors an emphatic notion of the control which discipline is capable of achieving over those who were so little under their own control." Doubtless, but how? Says a report made on its results:—

At Sing Sing, the only punishment for those who infringe the established order is that of the whip. The application of this disciplinary means there is very frequent, and the least fault is punished with its application. For various reasons, this punishment is preferred to all others. It effects the immediate submission of the delinquent; his

labor is not interrupted a single instant; the chastisement is painful, but not injurious to health. Finally, it is believed that no other punishment would produce the same effects.

This relentless, rigorous, and degrading *régime* was no less destructive to the intellect than absolute solitude. It was abandoned, because it could only be made to work under conditions fatal to success in certain vital directions. But, to a certain class of officials, it had one merit,—it could be made “to pay,” it could be made to refund the cost of running the prison. If the system at Sing Sing which superseded it and is yet in vogue is any less destructive to the character and health of the convicts, I have failed to come across any of the facts or reasons which sustain such a conclusion. The substituted system of congregate work, however, possesses the same virtue for tax-payers: it can be made to repay expenses in money returns. The prison can be made “self-supporting.” Silence, with work, then also breaks down, and cannot be effectively carried out.

From modern experience, we are apt to conclude that labor is an all-sufficient element of prison discipline; for it is now almost a universal incident in prison life, and rightly so. But it is no longer labor imposed as mere punishment. Mere punitive labors have been said to have “the stern support of practical effectiveness.” If this means that they may become so onerous and odious that the convict concludes that in the future he would rather not undergo them, it may be assented to; but it is not found in experience that they alone will operate remedially to keep him outside of prison walls. The fundamental reason for the miscarriage of such labor is that it is unproductive, both to the State and to the convict. It is not probable that an innocent man, out of prison, free and healthy, would long consent, even for adequate wages, to undergo purely unproductive exertions, such, for instance, as the useless labor of wheeling stones from one pile to another, without any ulterior results to his employer or the public. A man must have some rational interest in his work.

But upon the propriety of productive labor as a fundamental principle in prison discipline all men are everywhere agreed. It does not decrease the terrors of imprisonment; but it turns out to be a beneficent safeguard and solace to the convict when he is immured, gives him the means of earning an honest living on his release, and can be made to return to the State a portion of the cost of his arrest, trial, and incarceration. Upon this point there is no occasion for argument: it is the one point on which no two opinions touching prison management are now held.

Nor need we delay about the approved features of buildings intended for prisons. All are agreed that the convict is entitled to ventilation, light, heat, proper and sufficient food, medical attendance, mental, moral, and industrial instruction.

Having thus hastily reviewed our experience of what should and what should not be adopted in prison discipline,—what can and what cannot, availably, be introduced or dispensed with, in the routine and method of prison management,—by almost general agreement, we are at the dividing line between the advocates of two distinct schemes of prison politics and policies. Broadly stated, there are the “congregate” and the “separate” systems. Shall convicts work in association or separately?

Modern treatment (especially if reformation is kept in view) is based on the classification of prisoners. It is the starting-point of all treatment. *But the true purpose of classification is to avoid the evils of association*, and to give opportunity for appropriate discipline.

If we ever reach a perfect basis of classification, we shall need a separate prison for each class. As matters stand at present, we have consented to one great subdivision,—that of *first offenders*, say under twenty-five years of age. For them, we propose industrial reformatories. We are trying to see if we cannot escape entirely the necessity of submitting them to convict discipline and its consequent stigma and social consequences. The Reformatory at Elmira is the best type of this kind of institution yet evolved.

For the adult, hardened criminal, the old offender, the best classification is separation. “Separation is classification.” As we cannot build a separate penitentiary for each, we make each cell a penitentiary. This is the best provisional arrangement we have yet reached. Association of such convicts has no justification in modern experience, and is daily falling under philosophic condemnation and public execration. The Eastern Penitentiary at Philadelphia, as now administered, is the best type of this kind of institution. Philadelphia and Elmira stand at the cross-roads. Further progress must be made upon the lines here settled upon; future improvement must be made upon modifications of one or the other of the two systems there illustrated.

For first offenders there is apparently a different rule available. We assume in the reformatory that there is no established criminal class among its inmates. It is the very purpose of the discipline of a reformatory to subject its inmates, as near as may be, to the conditions of actual life, *plus* some restraint. The value of rivalries,

contentions, emulations, tests of progress in industry, morals, mental growth, and of resistance under temptation, can only be realized under association. The end distinctly sought, and on theory, supposed to be in sight,—to wit, reformation, progress to which is measured by “marks,”—can only be safely and assuredly attained by congregate intercourse. Experience has so justified this classification that few controvert it. Indeed, the legal and social theory upon which the modified restraint and discipline are based is that they are patients under treatment, and not convicts under sentence. Punishment is retribution for the past. The reformatory ignores the past, and seizes the future. Time and further experience will doubtless suggest other peculiarities or characteristics among convicts, which will enlarge the number who may be allowed the benefits of association when reformation seems probable.

Separation is expensive. It costs something to carry it out. Ideally, the “individual treatment system of convict punishment” undertakes to “discover the characteristics of each convict, carefully, intelligently investigate his circumstances, the motives which operated to the commission of the offence, his lack of capacity, his moral weaknesses, his hereditary taints, the want of proper training, his family surroundings, his usual associations, the means by which he was supported. When such an investigation is properly conducted, and the reasonable result is known, the punishment which such an investigation shows to be necessary can be applied. The man is then incarcerated and punished, taught a trade, and morally taught. Society has invested so much capital, to yield the return of a useful citizen. Society is the gainer, if by such a system of punishments seventy-five per cent. of convicts are made useful citizens. This is the proportion of reformed young convicts which the Eastern State Penitentiary releases from imprisonment.” If the glowing conclusion with which Hon. Richard Vaux winds up this paragraph in one of his “Talks” be in conformity with the facts, he has proved his case in favor of his system. Against such results, the objection as to *cost* is not worth a moment’s discussion. “If,” as he says, “‘the individual treatment’ system prevents the formation of a crime class, imparts to each individual a desire for labor, takes from involuntary toil the degrading idea that it is punishment, affords opportunity for self-improvement, encourages hope, stimulates a wish for reformation, saves the prisoner from the debasement of convict association,” then, indeed, we have hit upon the lines upon which future progress is to be made. Besides, Mr. Vaux avers that he can prove that his system is self-supporting.

It seems singular that, while we maintain legislatures, schools, courts, and police, yielding no direct tangible results estimable in currency, but which we know are indispensable and ultimately profitable pecuniarily, we should still treat a State's prison on the theory that it should be self-supporting. In a message to the legislature of Pennsylvania, I took occasion to say: "In neither of the penitentiaries of this State" (and we have one on the individual treatment and one on the congregate plan) "has there ever been an attempt yet made to administer them on the sordid, wicked, unworthy, and sole consideration of making them self-sustaining. In neither of them has it been forgotten that even the convict is a human being, and that his body and soul are not so the property of the State that both may be crushed out in the effort to reimburse the State the cost of his scanty food, and, at the end of his term, what is then left of him be dismissed, an enemy of human society." I recall no protest or dissent from these sentiments by the people of my State, but we know that there is a practice widely variant from them in many States.

The form known as the Convict Lease System was subjected to a most formidable indictment at the Louisville Conference by Mr. George W. Cable. It need not be renewed; for the only plea under it is, "Guilty." So far as reason and argument can go, its death-blow was then and there administered.

The following is an "official" summary (1880) of affairs in the prisons of one State; and it is true, measurably, of the prisons and jails of nearly one-half of the States of the Union:—

I found the convicts confined at fourteen different prisons, controlled by as many persons or companies, and situated at as many different places. They [the prisons] were as filthy, as a rule, as dirt could make them; and both prisons and prisoners were infected with vermin. Convicts were excessively and, in some instances, cruelly punished. . . . They were poorly clothed and fed. . . . The prisons have no adequate water supply, and I verily believe there were men in them who had not washed their faces for twelve months. . . . Our system is a better training school for criminals than any of the dens of iniquity that exist in our large cities.

It only remains for Mr. Cable, or some one like him, adequately fired with the indignation and abhorrence which they inspire, to frame a similar indictment against all prisons, everywhere, in which congregate convict labor is worked for the profit of the State as a manufacturer, in which convict labor is sold to the joint profit of the

State which sells, and the contractor who buys, this enforced toil. The indictment can be made effective and fatal, whether directed to the "Convict Lease System" or "Contract System." The employment of one at Sing Sing, N.Y., is no less indefensible than of the other at Baton Rouge, La. No human being can undergo its degradations, and escape the pitiful doom of a transformed nature. We are thus narrowing very much the limits within which the State can "work" the convicts.

There are valid economical reasons why a convict should be made to earn, in making commodities having an exchange value, all that can fairly be got out of him, consistently with other reformatory processes which consume part of his time. We are now leaving "retribution" out of the discussion. If the convict had remained an honest man and had continued his productive labor, he would nevertheless have been one more competitor in the labor market. The most radical labor reformer has no sufficient economic reason, which can be assigned, why the product of the labor should be excluded from the market in one case more than the other. It simply depends whether it comes on the market at its full exchange value, and that its exchange value is not enhanced by the additions made by the capital or machinery of the State. The State has no right to organize with the public capital a manufacturing establishment, and thus enter the market with its products as a capitalist, in the control of the enforced labor of a "penal serf." A man need not be very radical, in order to assign moral as well as economic reasons against this combination of capital and labor, which at once makes the State a monopolist, in competition with its own upright, honest, though single-handed citizens, unless the State is prepared to supply the entire outside demand for the commodities it produces inside its prisons.

This consideration in itself is fatal even to the "Public Account System." The State might make a prison "pay," but only under conditions unfair and pernicious to its honest laborers, who are not in prison.

We are then left pretty much to the alternative of applying prison labor to such raw material, simply as a convict can manipulate with his hands, unaided by machinery which involves large expenditures of capital. Convict labor ought not to be supplemented by expensive tools and implements, for reasons partly personal to the convict himself, but more especially important to the public. The value of his product ought not to be swelled by the contribution of the State's

capital in any large way. The product ought to have no added value except what the prisoner has put upon it. Machinery appropriate to the manual processes, such as outsiders (not monopolists) use, would not fall under this condemnation.

The resources of modern industry and modern prison management will be equal to finding enough employment for convict labor. Thus employed, that labor becomes apt, trained, and skilful; and, when released, all the fruits of the training will belong to the discharged convict.

The necessity of "congregate labor" thus seems substantially to disappear. Indeed, it becomes, on the contrary, rather a problem to contrive any legitimate industry to which associate work can be applied. If we rightly exclude the "Convict Lease System," the "Contract System," and the "Public Account System," we have left only the "Piece-price Plan." Some of its advantages are set forth in the report of your committee, already referred to.

1. The State is relieved from furnishing manufacturing capital.
2. The whole business of the prison governors is with the prisoners.
3. The control of the prisoner is unified.
4. The evil influence of the contract employer is abated.
5. The State is most sure to receive the real value of the prisoner's labor.
6. The piece-price plan best enables the prison government to place the prisoner in conditions, as to labor and living, closely analogous to the natural social state in this regard: the prisoner may be made to live, and enjoy whatever he can earn, but no more; and such a situation is most serviceable in training and testing under the remediable *régime*.

"The individual treatment system of convict punishment," with separate confinement, in its nature leads up to, and indeed compels, the adoption of the "Piece-price Plan."

Under the "congregate system," it seems to me that the issue must finally be forced to be between contract labor and no labor. In the present state of the revolt of labor and sound morals against "contract labor," prison "officials" who pride themselves on self-supporting institutions may be reduced to the financial straits which "no labor" implies.

Thus through the long years and centuries, with cruelties and excesses and mistakes, with no purposes or perverted purposes in view, against extravagant outbreaks of impracticable benevolence, retarded by the pedantry of visionaries, boosted forward by the

frenzy of philanthropy, halted again by the dogmatic pig-headedness of official stupidity and institutional conceit, we have at last emerged into a coherent, humane, and safe system of prison discipline, in theory, at least. Good men, everywhere, are disappointed; for crime goes on, and penitentiaries keep full, and the stream of reconvictions flows banks-full. It is a mooted question, even, whether punishment has diminished crime. At any rate, the ground we occupy has been won by honest, persistent, intelligent, and faithful experiment. The great problem has been to get the convict in an attitude where society can be reconciled to his presence, can afford to forgive him, can *trust* him. The first struggle was to release him, as a human being, from perfunctory, heartless care while in the custody of the State. We have been steadily turning from *punishment* to *reform* as the motive in the organization of prisons. The movement has been slow. Every great prison house, built on definite plans, fixes its status and its methods. It is costly to build, and too expensive to abandon. So mistakes, if made, are perpetuated. Reform, if practicable, must await a new evolution of opinion, and take the risk of a new tax levy.

If I were to attempt to forecast the future from the vantage-ground we now occupy, I should be glad to contemplate, in the near future, perhaps, all prisons and penitentiaries as reformatories. I should see the entire series of events of arrest, trial, conviction, sentence, incarceration, discipline, labor, instruction, and discharge as one continuous process, directed to the prevention of crime by efficient reformatory devices. There would not be two views of the prisoner,—one by the judge who sentences him, another by the warden of the prison to which he is committed. Both should be under the high duty of understanding his individual case, the discharge made under the same solemn conditions as the commitment. There would be a unified, steady, fixed purpose contemplated by the framer of the penal code, who kept his eye steadily on the criminal from the day he meditated his crime until he walked, *conditionally released*, out of his prison, and that only after society had successfully exhausted its punitive and remedial processes upon him. I should expect to find the philosophic law-maker ready to *abandon his mere arbitrary determinate time sentences*. There is no established relation between crime and its punishment, between prisoners and their sensitiveness to penalties and capacity for improvement. The relation which punishment, under existing usages, bears to either is purely arbitrary and fortuitous. All definitions of crime include acts

of the most various nature, and capable of being made more or less damaging to the public. The function of administering penal discipline should be exercised under the same high sanction as that of the legislator who frames penalties and the judge who metes out judicial sentences. Every prisoner should be treated as a reasoning being as well as a reasonable being. One high, intelligent purpose should pervade the system.

The sentence of the law should be framed with reference to the manifest visible effects which punitive treatment will work on the particular subject of it, and not on the mere chances of fitness or maladjustment of it to the culpability of the offender, without regard to his susceptibility to the moral effects of punishment and treatment. All sentences should be indeterminate in duration. Certain maximums being fixed, all time sentences may be abolished; and discharge should await the results of humane, rational treatment by processes as exact and unrelenting as trial and judgment. If a convict will not surrender to society under honorable and righteous discipline, let him remain under government restraints. This involves a higher order of administrative efficiency than we have reached, but we are moving toward it.

"Serving out a sentence" would then mean rehabilitation. Or, failing this, society can recapture the offender as an "escaped prisoner."

This issue of the great discussion is not yet actual: it is plainly possible. Let us not expect to produce results within the walls of a prison better than we can produce without them. Let us not expect that convicts within our penitentiaries will be better men than the mass of citizens whom the grace of God has kept outside. We are dealing with a section of human society.

THE PRISONS OF THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

BY HON. WILLIAM B. SNELL.

The prisons of the District of Columbia are not numerous or extensive. Since the old penitentiary was abandoned, Congress has not deemed it advisable to erect a new prison for the higher grades of crime, but provides for their punishment in existing institutions in different States. The average number thus provided for during ten years has been 88.9. To meet the demand for a suitable place for the safe detention of all prisoners for trial and its incidents, and the punishment of those who have jail sentences, the United

States, about ten years ago, erected the present structure, which is one of the best in the country, and is in charge of Gen. John S. Crocker as warden. Gen. Crocker was the warden of the old jail, and by long and meritorious service there, and by zeal, tact, intelligence, and unwearied devotion to his duties in this prison, has shown his ability and fitness for the trying position he has so long and faithfully filled. It is but just to say that the warden is ably supported by his efficient deputy, Mr. Rust, and other assistants.

The jail is described by the warden as a secure and substantial structure, and as being, in fact, a jail within a jail. It has a capacity to accommodate about 400 convicts. It is fire-proof, and the system of heating the various apartments is thorough and complete. The water supply is ample, and the drainage good. The sanitary condition of the prison is highly satisfactory. The special attention of officers and inmates is constantly directed to the observance of all regulations affecting the cleanliness of the prison or their own personal relations to it. The effect is conspicuously seen in the fact that during its existence it has been free from epidemics; and but five deaths have occurred in ten years, notwithstanding it is located in a district decidedly miasmatic. The sanitary record is believed to equal any in the country.

The daily average of prisoners is stated at about 200 during the ten years. The table accompanying the warden's report shows the number of prisoners for 1875 as 2,262: males, 1,996; females, 226. Daily average for that year, 181. The number committed in 1884 was 1,969: males, 1,680; females, 289. 72 were sent to the penitentiary, of whom 5 were females. Of those confined in jail for 1884, 490 were white males, 1,199 colored males, 273 colored females, and 16 white females, which is about the proportion for the whole period embraced in Gen. Crocker's report.

The separation of the sexes is now secured as completely as is possible while the two sexes are allowed in the same prison. But we emphatically condemn the mixed system, as we are convinced that no amount of care can prevent abuses. A matron, a kind and efficient Christian lady, has been placed in charge of the female prisoners within the last two years, and supplies a want long recognized.

Experience demonstrates that no female prison should be wholly left to the supervision of men. While the female prisoners were not numerous, we welcome the advent of the matron as a well-timed recognition of the demand for improved methods in prison discipline.

No chaplain is provided by law, whose duty it is to attend ser-

vices in the jail, workhouse, or reform school; but ministers of all denominations, members of the Young Men's Christian Association, and other Christian workers, have voluntarily and quite constantly maintained religious services in all these institutions, and done much toward supplying them with books and papers and comforting words, which to many are of more value than books, which often they care little for or may not be able to read or appreciate.

The system of confinement in this jail is the "separate" or "individual." It is not strictly solitary imprisonment, since conversation in the presence of a guard is permitted. It is thought that but little harm can arise from this indulgence, and much benefit by alleviation of the well-known evil which the purely solitary system develops.

The Revised Statutes of the United States for the District of Columbia, section 1090, authorizes the Supreme Court of the District to make rules for the government and discipline of the prisoners confined, "so far as necessary for their health, security, and protection from cruel treatment." Gen. Crocker says that, in the execution of his duties under such rules as he recognizes, "the officers of the institution are required to promote harmony, maintain order and discipline, protect the rights, and promote the well-being of the inmates by gentle means and timely advice rather than by resorting to physical force." Experience has confirmed him in the correctness of these views; and he believes that, by such treatment, many can be reformed, and that "even vicious and depraved subjects can be saved, and restored to their friends as good and law-abiding persons."

Aside from what is incident to prison duties, no labor is performed by jail convicts; and it will be observed that the power to make rules for government and discipline of the prisoners does not authorize or require labor. Consequently there is a constant average of about 200 prisoners supported by the government in a condition of enforced idleness. The pecuniary loss to the community by the non-employment of these convicts is easily established. The daily average of jail prisoners being placed at 200, and the working days in the year at 313, we have the number of days' work of the prisoners for one year 62,600. The average of workhouse prisoners in 1884 was just about the same as that of the jail, and the superintendent of the workhouse reports their labor as worth to the District (p. 7, Com. Rep.) \$20,845.50. This valuation by the superintendent, the District commissioners in their report to Congress indorse as correct. Assuming, therefore, the value of the labor of the jail prisoners to be the same,—namely, \$20,845.50,—we have a net annual

loss of that sum from the non-employment of jail convicts, to say nothing of the demoralizing influence of absolute and prolonged idleness upon the prisoners themselves. Does such idleness, under the best prison discipline, have a tendency to create a love for honest labor, stimulate ambition, promote reform, or prevent crime among the ignorant and vicious classes?

The commissioners of the District, fully convinced of the unsoundness in economical and moral aspects of the present non-employment policy, supported by their experience in utilizing workhouse labor in various ways (p. 7 of their last report), called the attention of Congress to the subject in the following forcible language: "As all degrees of crime in the District militate against the peace, welfare, and protection of its inhabitants, the commissioners desire to call attention to the fact, in their opinion, that results are but imperfectly accomplished in the repression and prevention of offences by simply confining offenders."

They call attention to the various offences, and their terms of imprisonment, as from "a few days to eleven months and twenty-nine days," and that during these periods the culprit does nothing to defray the expenses of his livelihood. "In fact," they say, "it is understood that some are gratified when the sentence of the court goes beyond the limit of punishment (ninety days) in the workhouse." At the termination of the culprit's sentence, "he is launched upon the community, perhaps rendered a more accomplished malefactor by prison association, and certainly less competent in every way to earn his living by reason of permitted and authorized indolence."

The commissioners accompanied their report with a bill formulating their views, but nothing was accomplished. The short session of Congress, the opposition of labor organizations, and the obstructive force of the rules of the House were sufficient to defeat the success of the proposed legislation. But the questions involved are such as peculiarly address themselves to this distinguished body for satisfactory solution. Shall the honest man and tax-payer be compelled to support the criminal class in idleness? Is it unjust to laboring men, represented by labor organizations, to give employment to convict labor in any form which makes it competition with other labor? Is it just to the criminal class to compel them to live a life in prison that unfits them for liberty and honest livelihood after their discharge?

It is to be hoped that the wisdom of this body may assist the

thinkers of the country, and especially Congress, to come to a wise and early solution of the problem, and the passage of a bill that shall meet the exact wants of this community and the justice of the case.

PRISON DISCIPLINE.

A PAPER FROM "THE PHILADELPHIA SOCIETY FOR ALLEVIATING THE MISERIES OF PUBLIC PRISONS," NOW IN THE NINETY-NINTH YEAR OF ITS EXISTENCE, PRESENTED IN BEHALF OF THE SOCIETY.

BY GEORGE W. HALL.

Build penal institutions but one story high. Attach to each cell a small yard,—about the size of the cell,—into which admit the prisoner at least an hour each day, for exercise, the cultivation of plants, and enjoyment of the sun's rays.

Adopt the separate individual treatment system. Bad people should be kept apart. There has been too much association, hence a radical change to separation. Connect a Prison Society with each prison district, so that the separately confined prisoners shall have frequent visits from good people. In the ratio that separation from bad company shall be enforced, let there be a proportionate increase of the visits of good men and women. Start with premiums rather than penalties. The fact of a deprivation of liberty is punishment enough, especially in free America.

If there be insubordination, disorder, refusal to work, or infraction of rules, withhold little comforts and privileges, restore and increase them as good behavior is evident.

In the Eastern Penitentiary of Pennsylvania there has been no use made of the dark cells for several years. It is a wise provision of Pennsylvania law to reward good conduct and industry by shortening sentences and by giving a direct interest in the work. As an evidence, twenty thousand dollars (\$20,000) were made in the Eastern Penitentiary, last year, by overwork, one-half of which was either retained by the prisoners or sent out by them to their families.

The foundation of true prison discipline is kind, considerate, individual treatment. Let each prisoner select the work he is best qualified to perform, encouraging a partnership interest in the amount earned and in the perfection of the article manufactured.

Recognize the common rights of humanity of each prisoner, so far as to prevent imposition or neglect. Always accord each a hearing.

Aim to elevate and develop the manhood and womanhood of every one. If an incentive to reform be found in shortening sentences for good behavior, a further reform would be found in the abolition of time sentences.

In Pennsylvania, the laws have been wisely amended by giving a maximum term for all crimes except those of treason and murder in the first degree. This leaves the judge to impose a sentence somewhat in accordance with the condition of the accused. But even this may be improved. It is not the crime that is to be punished, but the criminal that is to be reformed. Instead of consulting the law book, let the judge look at the dock. Instead of so many years for certain crimes, let it be the medicine of restraint for the prisoner until he is cured. Treat crime as a disease, the criminal as the patient. A physician of intelligence will prescribe the remedy until recovery, and cease administering when there is a cure. As it is now, the prisoner can claim liberty when the term expires, even if there be no reformation, and even if boastful of having revenge. Such a person is not fit to be discharged; more medicine is needed; there is no cure. Our plan would retain such a longer period.

On the other hand, the prisoner that is thoroughly and reliably penitent, determined to live a future life of correctness, to make restitution for wrong committed,—that is, serious and in earnest,—diligent at work, religiously inclined, and fulfilling all requirements, should not be continued a prisoner, a tax upon the State, a loss to the community, and himself, but should be discharged.

The questions as to discharge or continuance should be settled by a committee of five persons,—the warden, overseer, one of the inspectors, the moral instructor, and the visitor of the prison society, to be known as the Commission on Discharge.

Give employment to every prisoner; and, to those who have no trade, teach one. Let there be a Commission on Employments, to provide good paying trades,—trades that are remunerative, and that are not overdone, and that are worthy of being followed. *Have no contract labor in your penal institutions.*

While the foundation principles in penology are the separate system, whereby the prisoner is kept from public gaze, and is not known by other convicts, a protection upon discharge, and an aid to finding employment; and while the visitor of the Prison Society has an opportunity of appealing to the prisoner alone, and without the damaging presence of other convicts, while the prisoner has time to think, and can profit by being alone,—there is another feature of

penology that is of equal importance,—the care of deserving discharged prisoners at the eventful period of their discharge. A proper place to board, in case there is no old home to which to return, is of first consideration. Next, the question is where to go, what to do, and how to apply for work. Employment—elevating and paying employment is absolutely necessary. A sequel, in part, to this excellent separate system is that the prisoner can go forth without being known. Seek to make the discharged employers rather than employés. Furnish tools ; start them in business ; or, as is being tried, have a farm ; give them employment for a time, and then they can refer to the fact as to where they worked last, and thus often obtain situations. Thus, recommitments are prevented. There should be no neglect of deserving prisoners upon their discharge. May attention be given to these important suggestions, and higher ground taken for the care of misguided human beings !

VIII.

Jails and Police.

THE CONSTRUCTION AND MANAGEMENT OF JAILS.

BY A. O. WRIGHT,

SECRETARY OF THE WISCONSIN STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES AND REFORM.

The true theory of a jail is that it should be a place of detention for those accused of crime, and not a place of punishment for those convicted of petty offences. These should be sent to district work-houses, as they are in several States. But, meanwhile, the following can be said of jails upon the usual plan, a large part of which is also applicable to jails used merely as places of detention.

A good jail ought to be built and managed with reference to four objects:—

1. Safe-keeping of prisoners.
2. Health of prisoners.
3. Classification of prisoners, or entire separation.
4. Employment of prisoners (in those jails which receive persons sentenced for misdemeanors).

No jail can be considered a perfect jail, unless all these requisites are perfectly secured in its construction and management.

I. CONSTRUCTION OF JAILS.—To be secure, a jail should be built wholly of stone or brick or iron. All the outer walls should be of brick or stone. No wood or lath and plaster should be used in the outer walls or in any partition. The cells and other interior divisions should be of iron or stone. The floor should be of large and heavy stones or of iron. These materials, besides making it harder for the prisoners to break out, also make the jail perfectly fire-proof, which is desirable. All avenues of escape should be properly guarded. A chain is only as strong as its weakest link, and a jail is only as secure as its most insecure spot. The weak places in a jail are apt to be the following:—

The Windows.—These can be sawed through with steel saws or even with case knives, if harder than the iron of the window bars.

One clumsy expedient adopted in some jails is to place so many sets of bars in the window as to baffle the patience and wear out the tools of the most determined jail-breaker. A better way is to have bars of mixed steel and iron so set in the stone work that they cannot be dug out or pried out. There is also danger at the windows of friends outside passing in saws or other tools. In many jails, this is prevented by a high board fence close around the jail, effectually shutting off ventilation. A good jail yard built of brick or stone, at some distance from the jail, is better to prevent communication, and also for other reasons. When this is not done, the windows should be of rough plate-glass, to allow light, but not vision, to penetrate.

The Door.—Where the jail door opens immediately into the corridor in which the prisoners are confined, it becomes a man-trap for the jailer, who is liable to be assaulted with a weapon as he opens the doors. The jailer once knocked down and the keys secured, a rush for liberty is the next move. To avoid all danger of this, the jail doors should not open directly into the corridor in which the prisoners are allowed in the day-time. Either a second grated corridor should intervene or, at least, there should be a little space between the two doors, and the inner door should be grated and so arranged that the jailer can look each side of it before opening the door. An additional expedient is to have a little opening in the inner door of a small jail, thus saving the six daily openings and shuttings of the door for giving food and returning dishes. Many sheriffs' wives are left in charge of jails for days at a time alone, and need this protection.

The Floor.—If the floor is properly constructed, it will be impossible for the prisoners to dig out. Floors of brick or small stone are objectionable on this ground.

The Roof.—This should be protected with boiler iron.

The Privies.—Whenever vaults are used, the privies are apt to be the weak spot in the jail. Vault privies are bad for health as well as for security. Regular sewerage flushed with water is better. If sewerage cannot be provided and kept in repair, it is better to use close-covered buckets and have no vault privies.

The Cell Locks.—The cells should be fastened by a single bar for each range of cells. When padlocks are used, it is possible for expert prisoners to pick them through the bars or to pry them off from within. If these bars are secured by levers in the outer corridors, it gives additional security.

Besides these precautions, a jail ought always to be so constructed as to give a jailer's residence in front, with peep-holes to see without being seen.

A jail should be so constructed, with reference to health, as to be light, dry, warm, well ventilated, and with proper facilities for sewerage. The basement of a court house should never be used for a jail; for, besides being almost always insecure, it is quite sure to be dark, damp, poorly ventilated, and with defective sewerage. The sewerage of a jail needs special attention. In a city with a general system of sewerage, the jail only needs to be connected properly with it. In a place where there is no general system of sewerage, a special system can be constructed, using a reservoir in the upper part of the jail, supplied by a force-pump, or windmill. As new-comers are often dirty and infected with vermin, a bath-room is needed, as well as for general cleanliness. The methods for making jails light, dry, warm, and well ventilated, do not need discussion here. All the sunlight possible should be given; and the jail should stand north and south, so that the sun can come to every corridor with its purifying, life-giving rays some time each day.

It is a shame to the civilization of the country that we still persist in putting so many prisoners into utterly unhealthy places. It is hard enough for persons accustomed to out-door life to stay all the time in-doors in enforced idleness, without having the air poisoned with noxious stench, foul breath, and dampness. Our jails are not much better in this respect than the English jails of Howard's time.

If proper sanitary arrangements are needed for the physical health of prisoners, a proper classification is needed for the moral well-being of many of them. When prisoners are herded together without distinction of age or character, the jails become schools of crime and vice. The hardened offenders teach the young and comparatively innocent, or those arrested for the first time, lessons in the art of preying upon society and of breaking jail, or of otherwise escaping punishment. Here, in the long and weary hours of imprisonment, many a tale of past adventure in crime is rehearsed, many a plan is laid for future crime, many a jail friendship is made, which will hereafter ripen into comradeship in crime, and many a plan of escape is concocted. The young are taught that "the world owes them a living," and that it is not crime, but being caught in it, which is to be dreaded.

Visiting a jail, you are liable to find mingled indiscriminately together: (1) professional criminals waiting trial for State-prison

offences; (2) non-professionals, who have committed some crime under temptation, but who do not live by crime; (3) innocent persons accused of crime; (4) insane persons; (5) idiots, frequently filthy in their habits; (6) persons sentenced to jail for petty offences; (7) dirty tramps, sentenced as vagrants, or given lodging in the jail as a tramp hotel; (8) persons held as witnesses. In some counties, the only place for a person who is sick and without money or friends is the jail. Boys are generally, and women sometimes, put in with men. All these persons are thrown together in enforced idleness. Their only labor in most jails is doing a few chores under the oversight of the jailer. Their only recreation consists in handling a greasy pack of cards, in telling vile stories, or in looking at low pictures with which the cell walls are often decorated. They rarely have any considerable amount or variety of reading matter.

A proper classification of prisoners would prevent many of the evils arising from their herding together. But, to accomplish this, jails ought to be constructed in so many divisions that classes can be made and adhered to. The best plan is a separate cell for each prisoner, with the object of absolute separation of each prisoner from every other.* Where this, for any reason, is not done, the next best plan is to provide for at least four classes. Four classes for adult male prisoners is the least number that ought to be made. It is a classification easily carried out in the construction of a jail, for one corridor can face each way in each of two stories, thus making four divisions of the jail; and many of the jails now erected could be easily used in this form now by care on the part of the jailer.

The cage plan is the fashionable plan in jail architecture at present. This plan provides for security and healthfulness, but not for the proper classification. But even this plan can be so modified as to provide for separation or classification of prisoners.

Two or more rooms for female prisoners and for boys should always be made in the jailer's residence, entirely separate from the jail proper. Any ordinary rooms with barred windows and strong doors will do.

With few exceptions, prisoners sentenced to the county jail at hard labor generally spend their time in the exceedingly hard labor of telling stories and playing cards. The easiest way for a lazy fellow to pass the winter is to steal something of small value, have a spree

* Examples of jails intended to provide for complete separation of prisoners are those in Boston, Philadelphia, Lancaster, Pa., Mansfield, Ohio, and those now in process of construction in Milwaukee, and in Fergus Falls, Minn.

upon the proceeds, and then go to jail, where he is supported in idleness at the expense of the county. It is obvious that this is very poor economy, as well as an encouragement to petty crime to that part of the community who do not care for the name of being in jail. Such people ought not to be supported in idleness at the expense of the honest and industrious part of the community; and, even if their work is not of very much value in itself, it is well worth while to keep them at work for its moral effect on themselves and others. Tramps especially flock to those jails where they are fed in idleness, and shun the jails where they are treated to the labor test.

Every jail ought to have a secure jail yard, at least a quarter of an acre in size, with a high stone wall surrounding it. Within the yard, but at a distance from the wall, there should be a shed for shelter in stormy weather. In this yard, under guard, all the prisoners sentenced to imprisonment in the jail should be made to work at sawing wood, breaking stone, or other unskilled labor. All the wood used in the jail and court house can well be sawed by the prisoners. An agreement can usually be made with the city or village in which the jail is located to do the hauling, if the prisoners break the stone in the jail yard. Of course, all the cleaning and other work around the jail should be done by the prisoners; and all tramps who apply for lodging and breakfast should be given an opportunity to show their muscle in breaking stone or sawing wood.

II. MANAGEMENT OF JAILS.—No amount of care in construction will make up for carelessness in guarding prisoners. All prisoners held for any serious offence should be searched for saws and other tools. All knives and other articles capable of being used as tools should be taken away. Knives, forks, and spoons used in eating should be carefully counted after each meal by some responsible person. A thorough inspection of the jail should be made frequently, to detect any place where prisoners have been working at the windows, the doors, the walls, the floor, or the roof. It should be remembered that the traces of such work are usually concealed from the casual gaze.

Shackles and handcuffs should be used only in extreme cases of desperate characters in very weak jails. When more than ordinary precautions are needed to keep any prisoner, he should be locked in his cell. Great care should be shown by the jailer in entering and leaving the jail. One door should always be locked before the second one is opened. Prisoners should not be allowed to go outside unguarded, except as specified by law.

The first thing a sheriff or jailer should do in taking possession of

a jail should be to have a thorough house cleaning, to get rid of all dirt and to exterminate all vermin. He should have a house cleaning as often as once a month thereafter, in addition to the daily sweeping and mopping. The beds should be filled with clean straw, which should be renewed frequently. Clean blankets should be given to each new prisoner, and they should be washed frequently. Clean white sheets and pillow-cases should be provided each week.

The food of the prisoners is usually plentiful and good enough, but with little variety and not always well cooked. It costs no more money to give a variety or to cook food well, only a little more care. At present, the food usually consists of beef and pork, boiled or fried, bread, potatoes, coffee, or tea. This diet for sedentary people leads to constipation and various diseases. To avoid this, beans, oatmeal (both cooked a long time), with vegetable soup and brown bread, should be supplied frequently. The ventilation and heating should be looked to daily. When the jail is damp, fires should be frequently made, even in warm weather. In all cases of sickness, a physician should be called in, and his advice followed.

The three great moral evils of a jail are enforced idleness, unrestricted association, and lack of restraint on the behavior of prisoners. It is good for no one to be idle. Occupation of some kind ought to be furnished prisoners. Work should be provided for all sentenced prisoners and all others willing to work, and good reading matter or innocent games for all, when not at work. The *Police Gazette* and other papers giving accounts of crime ought to be strictly forbidden in a jail. The jail should not furnish the literature of crime to criminals.

It is impossible to separate prisoners absolutely from one another, as jails are now usually constructed. But there can easily be a classification into two or four classes, according to the number of corridors. Female prisoners should be separated from male prisoners. Boys should be separated from men, dirty tramps and drunkards from clean men, and professional criminals from non-professionals. For a jail which has four corridors, the following is as good a classification, perhaps, as possible. In one corridor, the safest in the institution, put all professional criminals and all desperate characters not professionals. In another corridor, put all men sentenced to jail for petty offences. In still another, put all the tramps and men brought in drunk. Take special pains to keep this clean. Reserve one corridor, and that the pleasantest one, for persons waiting trial, who are not professional criminals or vicious in their general habits. Each of

these classes should be kept separate from all the rest. It is the habit of many jailers to open the whole jail except the outer door during the day-time, and allow the prisoners the freedom of the whole jail. This should not be allowed. The freedom of the corridor into which his cell opens is sufficient for a prisoner, except when at work.

Where a jail is constructed to allow of separation, the prisoners should be rigidly kept separate, except when at work.

The behavior of prisoners is a matter of considerable importance. In some jails, the prisoners are respectful to visitors and to one another; in other jails, they are impudent to the officers, impertinent to visitors, vile in their language through the windows to the passer-by, and constantly quarrelling with one another. Such conduct is only allowed in a very loosely managed jail. For a jailer to say that he cannot control his prisoners is to acknowledge himself incompetent for his office.

The following rules are based on the practice of the best jails. If these or similar rules were posted up in each corridor of a jail, and strictly enforced, there would be better discipline than now exists in a majority of the jails of this country. It would be well to furnish a copy of these to each prisoner, when received.

RULES OF THIS JAIL.

1. Prisoners will be required to keep their cells clean, their beds made up, and their persons and clothing clean.
2. Prisoners will not be allowed to lie upon their beds in the day-time, unless sick.
3. No one will be allowed to deface or soil the walls of the jail in any manner.
4. No loud talking or obscene or profane language, and no quarrelling, will be allowed.
5. Prisoners are forbidden to speak or motion to any one through the windows.
6. No disrespectful or impertinent behavior to officers or visitors or to fellow-prisoners will be allowed.
7. The use of intoxicating liquor is prohibited. Those using tobacco must spit only in the spittoons provided for that purpose.
8. Prisoners sentenced to labor shall do such work around the jail, or elsewhere, as shall be provided for them.
9. Prisoners may receive visitors in the office by permission of the sheriff, and under such conditions as he shall prescribe.
10. All letters and parcels passing in or out of jail must be inspected by some authorized officer before delivery.
11. Complaints and requests of prisoners should be made to the sheriff, and all such will receive due attention.

12. Written orders will be given to officers and prisoners as occasion may arise for issuing them, which will have the same force as these rules.

13. For disobeying these rules or any other lawful order, either verbal or written, such punishment will be given as is provided by law.

THE POLICE IN ENGLAND.

BY T. B. LL. BAKER.

If I venture to submit any ideas to an American conference, I trust that I may be acquitted of the presumption of recommending any measure as one that will succeed in that country. The utmost I can hope for is to suggest measures which have succeeded in England, and to leave it to those who know your country to say whether, under your conditions of more sparse population, probable difference of public opinion, etc., the measure which has succeeded in the old country may be worth the consideration of the new.

In most countries of Europe, I think that, within my own recollection, public estimation of the police has altered considerably. Fifty years ago, a policeman was valued merely as a watch-dog, to frighten thieves away, or as a bloodhound, to track and capture them. Victor Hugo's description of M. Javert in *Les Misérables*, though exaggerated, is but a type of the policeman of old days,—violent in enmity to the bad, but scarcely believing in the existence of good; the savage enemy of the one, but not seeking the friendship of the other. That a policeman should help a convict to become honest, that he should have any dealings with him, except either to drive him out of his district (to thief elsewhere) or to arrest him, would have been thought an unnatural proceeding. Enmity between the police and the thief was considered the natural and wholesome state; but the police, though useful, were rather tolerated than loved or honored.

As time passed on, the few who thought at all on the repression of crime saw that it was highly desirable that policemen should be treated as reasonable and responsible beings, and that they were worthy of being so treated. Chief constables were selected, not from old policemen of the Javert type, who had distinguished themselves as the enemies of all who were suspected of crime, but usually from officers of high standing in the army or navy, accustomed to organization and to a habit of firm but gentle command, with sufficiently

large minds to prefer a general diminution of crime to an increase of arrests.

For many years, however, the due estimation of the police grew but slowly. In 1864, a new act was passed, to regulate our penal servitude prisons, which answer in some degree to your State prisons; and a clause was introduced, ordering that all criminals released on ticket of leave should report monthly to the police. I have now before me a book filled with extracts from the press of that year. Not only were there many papers which strongly opposed this measure, but I did not at that time meet with a single paper which advocated it, all declaring that the police were utterly unfit to be trusted, as they would certainly "hunt the licensees out of any honest work, and drive them back to crime."

When, in spite of their remonstrances (and of the strong opposition of a *soi-disant* liberal government), the measure was passed by the House of Lords, a leading journal gave as its opinion: "A more decided innovation than that introduced into our police system was never carried by a majority of conservative noblemen. Hitherto, the detection of crime and the arrest of offenders have been the only duties of a policeman. Henceforth, the prevention of crime by precautionary measures will become part of his office." And this was actually urged as being an evil!

The journal was quite right in its facts. The prevention of crime has been since then considered the most important part of a policeman's office. Hitherto, men had been liberated from prison before the expiration of their sentence, without check or watch kept upon them, in the hope that they might gain an honest employment by dishonestly concealing the truth. The plan had not succeeded. Very many relapsed; and a panic set in, exaggerating the evil. In 1863 and some previous years, I think, we seldom took up a newspaper without finding three or four statements of "atrocities by ticket-of-leave men." In 1864, the act passed; and, in 1865 and the following years, we hardly found one such statement in a week.

I think this had considerable effect in raising the public estimation of our police. It was felt that they were not merely antagonists to the criminals, but that they knew them, watched them, would be kind friends to them so long as they lived honestly, but could all the more readily detect them if they relapsed into crime. From that time, I think, a larger and gradually increasing number of the public have regarded the police, not as mere watch-dogs to drive away thieves, but as friends to all,—to the honest, as protecting them from

loss; to the dishonest, as lessening to them the temptations which lead them to ruin.

This feeling can scarcely yet be called general throughout England, but it is steadily increasing. It is, perhaps, more advanced in this country than in most others, partly because we have an extremely good chief constable, and partly that our justices have for some years employed our police as agents of the Discharged Prisoners' Aid Society; and, when the public find them to be kind friends to the ex-convicts, so long as they work steadily and honestly, they are the more willing to accept them as friends to all.

Of course, it is not to be expected that each individual of so large a body will understand and enter into the high philanthropic feelings which should actuate the general force. Recruited as our police are from the poorer and least educated class, there must be many merely strong, active fellows, useful if a riot should take place, still more useful in preventing it by their presence, but not men capable of much thought or feeling. Of course, also, we must expect to find among the number some sharp, clever fellows who will attempt to gain credit for themselves by exaggerating a case against a prisoner; but, if firmly suppressed, such cases will be rare. Among so large numbers, various faults must occasionally appear; but, if the chief be himself a man of high honorable principle and a good judge of character, he will soon select from the number some men of thorough honesty, and with good and kind feeling, combined with quick intelligence. If he promotes such men as these, they will aid him to select others of a similar stamp, whom he may employ in offices of trust.

In the old days, it was considered necessary, in dealing with clever and unscrupulous criminals, to employ sharp and unscrupulous agents, and to meet cunning by cunning and deceit by deceit. Now, scrupulous honesty is found, generally, to answer better. Certainly, in the old days, crime increased faster than the population. Now, it is rather diminishing, while population increases.

I cannot, for my own part, pretend to very much experience in such matters; but, some forty years ago, I worked for three or four years as amateur detective in breaking up an extensive and clever gang of poachers in a satisfactory manner, inasmuch as I never prosecuted or hurt one of them. My game-keeper was thoroughly honest, and they knew they could trust his word or mine. But we knew when to hold our tongues, while the clever poachers could not hold theirs. A very few pounds given to a few of them set them talking; but

they always found that I knew more about their proceedings than they could account for, and far more than they liked. And they credited me with almost supernatural intelligence. In truth, some absurdly simple accidents gave me various bits of information, of which I made the most, while I did not betray my ignorance where I felt it. It may be said that this was only a lucky chance; but such chances seem always to occur, if we carefully look out for them and use them. However, the poaching ceased, and for twenty years no poacher ventured on my land; but I think none of them bore me any ill will, though I spoiled their sport.

Perhaps it has been, in a great measure, this recollection which makes me feel so strongly that great talents are not so much needed by policemen as strict honesty and truth, with a will to lessen crime, quite as much for the sake of the criminal as of the honest. Of course, some other requirements are necessary for one who hopes to rise to high rank: a carefully cultivated memory, both for faces and facts; the power to listen attentively and to remember, if possible, the very words used by others, combined with great caution as to what he himself says, as near as possible to a total absence of conceit and vanity. Nothing is so dangerous as a love of boasting of what he has done. I know nothing of American courts of justice; but in England, if a policeman (or indeed any other) is cross-examined by a sharp and perhaps overbearing counsel, if he attempts to be clever, to make a repartee, or to consider whether his answer will affect the verdict in the way he wishes, he lays himself open to intense bullying. If, on the other hand, he will try to be exactly like a child, and only be careful to answer each question as simply and truthfully as possible, no cross-examination can hurt him. In addition to—or, I may say, above all—these qualifications, he should have a temper well under control and sufficient courage to bear abuse, hard words, and even hard blows, without becoming angry. These are high qualities, and I often wonder to find them so common as they are among our police. I need hardly add that sobriety is essential.

It used to be considered that the duties of the police should be restricted to the repression of crime or offences; but my old friend, Gen. Cartwright,—who for many years filled the office of government inspector of the police of more than a third part of England,—gave it as his opinion that the more duties there could be intrusted to them, the more effectually and cheaply they would be performed. His advice has been generally adopted; and, in most counties, many extra duties are allotted to them.

In this county, besides acting as agents for the Discharged Prisoners' Aid Society, of which I have before spoken, telling them where they can find work, and, if necessary, assisting them with small sums of money, we have found the police of very great value in preventing the spread of contagious cattle disease. Last year, when many counties suffered very severely, although we had several outbreaks, in no case did it spread beyond the farm where it first appeared. Probably, many thousand pounds were saved by their care. The inspection of main roads is well within their province. The occasional inspection of weights and measures in shops, the inspection of common lodging houses for the poor, the dispensing bread relief to vagrants (a valuable measure, as inducing the public to withhold careless alms), all are ably performed by the police, with great advantage to the public, and not only without interfering with their duties in prevention of crime, but with positive advantage, as investing them in the eyes of the public with the character of benefactors to all ranks.

I still, however, believe that in England, at least, the general estimation of the police never has been, and is not even yet, as high as the men now deserve; and I feel confident that a more just appreciation of their office would not only give them more power, but would incite them to study still more to make themselves thoroughly efficient for an office which, in proportion to the rank of its members, is certainly one of the most useful and honorable in the State.

I will only add a few short statistics: Our police district has an area of 804,197 acres, and a population of 404,197 persons. The force consists of 312 men of all ranks, giving an average of 2,577 acres and 1,296 persons to each constable. This may enable any American chief constable, who may wish it, to compare the average forces of the two countries.

IX.

Charity Organization.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON CHARITY ORGANIZATION.

BY W. ALEXANDER JOHNSON.

In the papers and debates of the present Conference, there has been seen in discussions on prison discipline, on institutions for the insane, the imbecile, the orphan, etc., the working out of a general law of social science,—the law that the defective classes are to be considered, not as objects of punishment, but of treatment; diseased persons to be cured, or persons in danger of disease to be protected, quarantined, or disinfected. This law is especially applicable to scientific charity; and the essentials of charity organization, which is based on science, are briefly these:—

First, a trained agent,—a physician to diagnose the disease and prescribe an immediate remedy, or occasionally direct the patient to the office of a specialist; a nursery, a wood-yard, a labor bureau.

Second, a committee of clear-headed, warm-hearted men and women,—a consultation of physicians carefully to consider and decide on the case.

Third, a volunteer visitor,—a trained nurse, to take the case in hand, and carry out the system of treatment as ordered by the physicians.

Leaving metaphor, scientific charity demands: First, the most thorough and accurate investigation; second, prompt and adequate relief, after very careful consultation,—relief that shall be remedial, and not a cause of further pauperism; third, hearty and entire co-operation of every relief-giving agency, made possible, in large cities, by thorough registration of every application in a central office; in a small city by a thorough mutual understanding; fourth, the volunteer work of friendly visitors, keeping watch over the poor people to guide them and help them to self-help.

These cardinal ideas of charity organization are now so widely understood and accepted that it is not necessary to dwell on them at greater length.

For the purposes of this report, the widest meaning has been attached to the term "charity organization"; and it is held to include all societies organized in cities and large towns, with the object of securing the relief of the poor in such a way as to reduce, and not increase, pauperism, and to this end accepting most of the leading principles just enumerated.

In order to collect information, blanks for report were sent to all known charity organization societies, associated charities, and kindred societies, to all known relief societies in towns where the others do not exist, and to all cities of the United States having 12,000 inhabitants and over at the last census, addressed to such civic or other officers as were thought likely to help the forms to find the proper hands. One hundred and twenty-one such blanks were sent out, and seventy-one answers have been received. Of these seventy-one, thirty-six are from societies called Associated Charities or Charity Organization Societies, or by a name intentionally similar, and fourteen are from other societies which accept most of the principles above laid down,* the remainder being from societies for relief purposes, with more or less crude organization, but whose methods do not produce data of service for this report. Of these latter, many have consented to act as correspondents for charity purposes to the Charity Organization Societies; and a further list of names has also been secured in one hundred and two other towns and villages for the same purpose, making, with the charity organization and other societies, a complete list of one hundred and seventy charity correspondents in the United States.

The first mentioned fifty reports have been compared and condensed, and the result is now offered to the Conference.

The reporting societies are, by States, as follows: New Jersey, seven; New York and Massachusetts, each six; Pennsylvania, Ohio, Illinois, and Indiana, each three; Minnesota, Tennessee, District of Columbia, and Kentucky, each two; and one each from Louisiana, Delaware, Connecticut, Iowa, California, Michigan, Wisconsin, Rhode Island, Maryland, Colorado, and Maine.

Of these fifty societies, thirty-four conduct their work through a single office. Sixteen have district offices, and, in some cases, subordinate district associations. Forty-six cover the whole field of

*The decision as to which societies are organized on the principles asserted has been left to the senders of the reports.

their city; and the other four, which at present cover it only partially, intend in their plan to do so wholly. Twenty-four give relief regularly from their own funds: four do this in emergencies only, and twenty-two not at all. All, however, agree in securing relief, when necessary. All but eleven employ paid agents. The supply of volunteer workers is reported equal to the needs of the work by twenty-one; not equal, by twenty-eight; and one reports "no volunteer workers, and none needed." Twenty-four report this supply "increasing"; fifteen, "stationary"; three, "diminishing"; and seven make no estimate.

With respect to co-operation of relief agencies, one society reports it entire in every branch of work; twenty-five report an increasing degree; three, stationary; and twenty-two make no estimate; from which last, the conclusion is, either that the degree is diminishing, and they do not like to say so, or else that they are not giving the subject the attention it deserves.

To estimate co-operation more accurately, the report is divided into its various forms as effected with: 1. charitable societies; 2. charitable institutions; 3. public charities; 4. churches; 5. private beneficence. The following is the result under each heading: With charitable societies, 6 report co-operation "perfect"; 8, "full"; 5, "none at all"; 10 make no estimate; the rest range from "83 %" to "very little thus far." Co-operation with charitable institutions (not supported by taxation): 5 report "perfect"; 6 say, "nearly all"; 6 "none at all"; 14 make no estimate; the others range from 80 % to "very little." Co-operation with public charities,—that is, those supported by taxation: "entire," 13; "nearly perfect," 3; no estimate, 9 (which means, emphatically in this connection, "no proper attempt made"). The rest range from 80 % to "very little." Co-operation with churches: 6 say, "perfect"; 1, "perfect in sentiment"; 9, "very good"; 7 make no estimate; 27 range from 90 % to 2 %. Co-operation with private beneficence: 3 report "perfect co-operation," 100 %; 13 say, "good"; 12 make no estimate; the remainder, from 80 % to "very little."

Concerning the extremely difficult and yet most necessary matter of registration, the very key to the entire system of co-operation, the report is the least satisfactory. It is divided, as was the previous subject. Registration of charitable societies: 2 claim "100 %"; 37, "none at all"; 1, 90 %; 1, 60 %; 4, 50 %; 1, 10 %; 1, "allowed

*The percentages which follow are not all perfectly accurate, but are estimated so as to convey practically accurate information as to success or failure.

to know"; 2, "exchange information"; 1, "report and consult." The registration of charitable institutions is as follows: 1, 100 %; 1, 50 %; 1, 10 %; 1, 3 %; 4, "compare and consult"; 1, "have agreed to register"; 42, "no registration." In public charities, the showing is a little better, yet far from good: 10, "register fully," 100 %; 1, "city infirmary only"; 1, 20 %; 1 "have agreed"; 3 "compare regularly"; 34 make no attempt.

Of church agencies for giving relief, 2 societies register 50 %; 1, 44 %; 1, 15 %; 1, 10 %; 2, 5 %; 1, 4 %; 1, "2 % actual, while 18 % have promised"; 1, "some have agreed"; 4 "compare and consult"; 36, "none at all." It can hardly be expected that any large figures should appear under the next heading; namely, "Registration of Private Benevolence." 1 says, 75 %; 1, 60 %; 1, 50 %; 1, 20 %; 1, 12½ %; 1, 10 %; 1, "small per cent."; 43, "none at all."

Is it not likely that in this very small per cent. of registration lies the secret of much want of success? Here is one thing that charity organization sets out to accomplish; the one thing that pre-eminently distinguishes it from old-fashioned relief methods. Every society, worth its salt, investigates and keeps records; but this plan of keeping records, in a central bureau, of the charities of the city is distinctly the product of the scientific idea in charity, and a mark by which it may be known. This gives it a recognized value, patent to all the world, which not only private beneficence of every kind, but public officers, are learning to use and assist. Is not a failure in this regard a surrender of the function of the society which most makes it necessary?

After the questions relating to the status of the various societies in their individual work, a few others were added as to the condition of the cities, in the hope of eliciting some accurate data for comparison in future years; and some useful results have been attained.

As to official out-door relief, it is reported "increasing" in eleven cities, of which one says, "without need," and two say, "increasing during the past winter." Six report "stationary," of which one says, "without discrimination." Nineteen report "diminishing," of which one says, "with prospect of early abolition." Three say, "Diminishing on the whole, while increasing during the past year." One city (Brooklyn) reports out-door relief "entirely abolished"; two (Philadelphia and New York), "almost abolished." One (New Orleans) has none to abolish. The rest make no estimate.

Pauperism, as distinguished from mere temporary distress, generally goes hand in hand with out-door relief. In reference to this, six

say, "pauperism is increasing"; six report "stationary," of which two say, "owing to bad system of official relief"; twenty-two report a diminishing quantity, of which one says, "very slowly"; one, "largely"; one says, "rapidly." One (St. Paul) says, "There is comparatively little pauperism." The remainder make no estimate.

Wayfarers' lodges exist in sixteen cities, six being under the direct control of the society reporting. One city has tried the plan, and abandoned it as unsuccessful; and thirty-three have none.

Thirty-four societies report some systematic form of relief by employment of able-bodied men, of which sixteen are "of wood-yards," five "of stone-breaking," two "of street work," two not stated, eleven have "labor bureaus," while fifteen make no attempt in that direction.

Relief by employment for women is reported by thirty-four, of which ten do it by giving "sewing" (in one case making grain-bags); three, "laundry" work; six do not state what is the nature of the employment; fourteen have "labor bureaus"; and eighteen make no attempt.

Under the heading of Provident Schemes, eight cities report fuel-saving societies; two, provident dispensaries; six, savings societies.

Special forms of charitable effort have emanated in various directions from the charity organization societies. In relief work there have been established "loan relief committees," "pensions for the aged," employment, laundries, wood-yards. In educational work there have arisen kindergartens, kitchen-gardens, sewing-schools, cooking classes, nursemaids' classes, vacation schools, industrial schools, and a training school for nurses; in medical and kindred work, provident dispensaries, flower missions, diet dispensaries for the sick, surgical appliance committees; for children, day nurseries, children's aid societies, children's temporary home, society for preventing cruelty, children's country week; social evenings for working girls, Young Women's Christian Union, tenement house work; and one society reports that under its influence a number of ill-managed and useless efforts have ceased.

The committee also invited suggestions as to the work of the Conference and as to co-operation between cities at a distance, and received some wise and useful thoughts, some of which have been acted upon in meetings of delegates interested in this special department.

In conclusion, the committee has to say that the intentions with which it commenced its work have not been found quite practicable.

The societies are not yet sufficiently organized for quantitative statistics except as to their own labors.

Recognizing that the functions of the Charity Organization Societies in cities are somewhat analogous to those of the State boards in States, as far as regards this Conference, it is hoped, in the near future, that as useful and accurate reports may be presented, so that we may know not only how many blind and dumb and insane we have, but also how many paupers, either occasional or systematic. Leaving out non-residents, we ought very soon to be able to do this in cities where the organization is five or six years old. At any rate, we ought to be able to present a candid and trustworthy statement as to the growth or the abatement of the evils we are working to suppress, so as to measure the value of our methods of work.

THE BOSTON WAYFARERS' LODGE.

BY T. F. RING.

For a while, the police stations were the only asylums for the swarms of unemployed men who are constantly passing through the city; and, in 1877, 55,973 men and 6,746 women received the miserable lodgings of a police cell in the city of Boston.

Any one who has seen the way in which the poor wretches were huddled together in their damp, reeking clothes, no bed but a hard bench, no food if hungry, turned out at daybreak into the snow of a winter morning, must have felt that this method of caring for the poor tramps was utterly barbarous and heartless, and was imposing upon the police a disagreeable duty, for which no pretence of accommodation was made, either in the way of furnishing bedding or any form of food. The unfortunate lodger was simply protected from the storm without, and often locked in the same cell that held drunken brawlers arrested on the streets. The policemen would often pay for food for the poor, and it had become an intolerable task upon their time and a heavy tax upon their pockets.

Realizing that some better system must be adopted, the City Council, acting under the Massachusetts Laws of 1875, chapter seventy, gave the Overseers of the Poor the care of this class of the unfortunate; and a committee of that board, in which the writer had the honor of serving, was appointed to formulate a plan by which the evils of the tramp nuisance might be removed, and some good

effected for the benefit of the large number of decent, unfortunate wayfarers who had become, in the public mind, identified with the tramp, pure and simple.

After careful consideration of the subject, and taking the best advice of those who had had practical experience in the matter, the committee recommended that a central lodging-house, of sufficient capacity, be opened for the reception of homeless men, and that the station-houses be used only for the safe-keeping of offenders, and that no more lodgers be received by the police.

This would, in a very short time, cause the habitual vagrant to become well known to the superintendent of the central lodging-house; and after a reasonable warning, if this vagrant would not provide for himself by going to some honest labor, he could be committed to the State workhouse.

To insure the quiet of the house, it was proposed that applicants for lodgings should go to the nearest police station and ask for cards of admission to the lodging-house. If intoxicated or noisy, the applicant was to be detained in the police quarters. All others were furnished with cards, reading:—

Police Station No. . . . Application for Lodgings, Date . . . Name . . . Age . . . Nativity . . . Residence . . . Occupation . . . Officer in charge, and the time, by the clock, when the card was given. This last became necessary when, in practice, we found drunken men presenting themselves for admission who had first secured cards for lodgings, and then been about drinking, so that they were intoxicated by the time they reached the house.

Lodgers are received between seven and ten o'clock, when the doors are locked. We feel that such men would better be in bed early, and the streets are safer in consequence. Each lodger was at first obliged to take a comfortable warm bath before going to bed. Later on, a shampoo was added, and rigorously enforced.

A metal tag, bearing a number, is given to the lodger. He hangs his clothes upon a hook having the same number, and is furnished with a clean night-shirt and ascends to one of the dormitories, where he sleeps upon a cot bed numbered the same as his tag. If his clothes are—well, we will say troublesome, they are bundled into a steam boiler, at a pressure of sixty pounds, for two hours, and then dried out, and are more comfortable wearing for a while.

At six o'clock in winter, and earlier in summer, the lodgers are called, and, when dressed, go into the wood-yard, where wood has been put in regular stacks of about one foot each; and as soon as

the man has sawed his share of wood, or done what other work has been required of him, he may have a plentiful, hearty breakfast, and leaves the yard. Usually, by nine o'clock, the lodgers are all gone away.

This plan was adopted, and the house opened, in 1879. The building was an old school-house, remodelled at a small cost, and plainly fitted for its new purposes. In naming the house, the Committee felt they had a right to assume that the applicant was a decent man, willing to do what work he could to earn his lodging and food, until he proved himself otherwise, and that we should not degrade him nor the city's hospitality by giving any opprobrious name to the place. Our venerable chairman said, "The poor fellows are but wayfarers: let the house be the Wayfarers' Lodge." And so it was named.

What has an experience of six years taught us?

First, that the vast majority of poor men who come to us asking for shelter and food are worthy of being encouraged and helped. They have been docile and tractable. Coming to us foot-sore and weary, they have accepted, in quiet gratitude, the luxury of a bath and clean bed. They have done their work, as a rule, willingly, and left the Lodge feeling they had been treated well, and feeling, too, that no charity had been inflicted upon them; for, by their labor, they had paid for what they had received.

Up to April 30, 1885, 127,084 lodgings have been given, and 257,940 meals; and in only two, perhaps three, instances have we had to bring lodgers before the courts for assault on our employés, or for refusing to work, or for destroying tools. True, there has often been sore provocation; but our rule to the employés of the Lodge is, never to strike a man, except to protect their own lives or to avoid severe bodily injury. They are to lock the offender in the cellar, and telephone for the police, and never swear at or abuse any one.

Two causes contribute to the general quiet of the house: first, the exclusion of drunken men, by referring all applicants to the police stations for admission cards; second, the regular tramp knows that the discipline of the house would consign him at once to prison for from six months to two years, if he were openly to defy it.

Our lodgers may roughly be grouped into five classes:—

1. Factory operatives out of work, either on account of dull business or strikes, shifting across the State from Fall River and vicinity to the mills at Lowell, Lawrence, etc. Often, without money enough

to pay railroad fares, they plod along the roads, threatened with arrest in every country town; and, when they reach the city, they need a few days' rest before it is possible for them to go further.

2. Laborers on railways and public works, who spend their money as fast as they are paid off. When winter comes, they go to the larger cities, and trust to luck to get through until spring.

3. Stowaways, who come over on the foreign steamers, particularly on cargo steamers. These are about the meanest samples we have to deal with. They come to us direct from the ship, black as negroes from the coal bunkers where they have slept, and expect to be fed and lodged until they can get a chance to go back to Liverpool, London, or Glasgow, in charge of cattle on some of the steamships.

4. Men who have lost or spent their money with dissipated company, and who must stay with us a few days, until they can be provided with means to reach their homes.

5. Lastly, the genuine tramp, who hangs about the drinking saloons of the city and lives nobody can tell how. These come to the Lodge as seldom as possible, for they know they are not welcome, and generally present themselves on a very stormy night, when no one would think of refusing them shelter.

The lodgers, as a rule, are young men, and not married. One hundred names, taken consecutively, give the following results as to age:—

16 years,	2	20 to 30,	46
17 "	1	30 to 40,	32
18 "	2	40 to 50,	13
19 "	2	50 to 60,	2
		60 to 70,	1

The average age is a trifle over thirty years. Three nights is the ordinary limit for lodgers; but, under some circumstances, this period is considerably exceeded.

The cost of operating the Lodge is not far from \$10,000 per year, say \$3,200 for salaries of superintendent and assistant, cook, and two hired men; groceries and provisions, \$4,400; fuel and gas, \$1,200; and \$1,000 for water rates, bedding, sheets, towels, night-shirts, etc.

The sale of kindling wood is about \$20,000 per year, with a clear profit, annually, of \$4,000 to \$5,000, which is regularly paid into the city treasury, thus reducing the cost of the Lodge nearly one-half.

If the building were located on a suitable wharf, where vessels could discharge wood directly on our ground, and if the yard room

were large enough so that we could employ the greater part of our lodgers at sawing wood, we should save not far from \$1,000 per year in extra carting, and fully \$1,500 per year in labor, for which we now pay cash. The lodgers would then earn \$7,500 of the \$10,000 needed to pay current expenses.

During the winter months, we cannot employ half the men at useful labor. Some are set to work piling wood, and others to throwing it down, to keep all hands busy; for everybody must work when at the Lodge, no matter if the labor has no commercial value.

The Lodge has three large dormitories, each fitted with fifty canvas cot beds. One smaller room has ten beds, intended for the occasional better class of applicants.

The whole number of lodgers in 1884 was 24,967; average per night, 68. The average for the months of January, February, March, April, November, and December was 98 per night; the highest number lodged on one night, 170.

Saturday nights, the house does a lively business, as no work is imposed for Sunday; and the tramp, anywhere near the city, tries hard to get to Boston Saturday night. Stormy nights bring in a large number who cannot stay out in their customary resorts.*

We have been very fortunate in our house superintendents, who have discharged their duty faithfully, patiently, and humanely.

The city government has always given us what we asked for, and we believe that, upon the whole, the Wayfarers' Lodge has been a good investment for the city of Boston.

[By way of illustration, and in concluding his paper, Mr. Ring gave about twenty names of lodgers, with their ages, occupations, and the circumstances under which they were received at the Lodge.]

*The Saturday free night became abused; and the average for this night rose to ninety-four against sixty-eight, the daily average for the year. New regulations, issued October 3, required lodgers to work from 8 to 10 P.M. on Saturdays, in payment for bath, bed and breakfast. The two nights the plan has been in operation show a very large falling off in patronage, only thirty men per night presenting themselves for lodging on the new terms.

October 15, 1885.

COMBINED EFFORTS IN CHARITY WORK.

BY REV. E. R. DONEHOO, OF PITTSBURGH, PA.

Charity, to be effective, must be administered with just discrimination. This problem has not been solved when plans have been successfully devised for developing the benevolence of the entire public, nor when the objects of our charity have been discovered and relieved. Without thorough systematized effort, the benevolent intentions of those who joyfully respond to their noblest impulses only result in fostering and increasing the evils which they would desire to mitigate. Whenever individuals or societies undertake to minister to the wants of the needy in any particular community, without interchanging information, but by concealing their transactions one from another, they are simply conspiring to increase mendicity in its most despicable forms. With the rapid growth of our population, it becomes the urgent duty of all who are in any way interested in dealing with the dependent to combine together, for their own mutual protection, and as well for that of society at large, against the impositions of those who would practise upon the generosity of their fellow-men. So long as our churches, guilds, societies, benevolent orders, and private individuals insist upon their own separate ways of working, while refusing, through mistaken delicacy toward the objects of their benefactions, to make known and compare one with another what they have done, their efforts will prove worse than useless. Better for society that the deserving poor should be left to struggle on in their misery, and that the unworthy be allowed the privilege of starving, than that the vicious methods of dealing with the poor as practised in other days should be suffered to continue with all deplorable consequences, which are so palpable to every student of social science. What is true in regard to unsystematized charity in any particular locality is also applicable to our cities at large. Until all the cities and towns and communities in this land combine together in mutual and uniform efforts to abate the evils of mendicancy, as they present themselves to us at this time, the most perfect organization in any one or all of them, acting independently, will fail of success. The workers in this sacred cause of humanity throughout the length and breadth of this broad land must clasp hands and combine in counsel and in purpose, if they would serve their day and generation with acceptance, and

fully meet the grave responsibilities which devolve upon them. The effectiveness of the plan of charitable relief, as adopted in Philadelphia or New York or Chicago, is, in a measure, dependent on the measures adopted and put into effect in Cincinnati, St. Louis, and New Orleans. The workers in each of these cities may confidently esteem their methods as the most practical on all accounts, and may be impelled to criticise the plans employed by their less enlightened and progressive neighbors in other cities; yet, notwithstanding all this, the necessity for combined work with those who have not attained to our knowledge and light still presses upon us. While, by correspondence and acquaintance and the cultivation of friendly intercourse, we can avail ourselves of the advantages of their machinery and personal assistance in many an emergency which may arise, we may also be enabled to show them the superiority of our methods, and gradually lead them to a more uniform and methodical system of administering their charities.

In this and in previous Conferences, that miserable pest of our modern civilization, the omnipresent tramp, has been discussed from various stand-points, but always to his discredit. These vampires who prey persistently upon our social system, and who manage to subsist despite the efforts of sociologists and legislators and magistrates to suppress them, continue to traverse the land back and forth and up and down, robbing and begging, bullying and cringing, as opportunity affords or necessity suggests. In addition to these notorious characters, who travel singly and in companies as their sweet wills may suggest, the workers in charitable relief in all our cities are confronted with the family tramps, who manage to eke out an existence by shifting their local habitat as often as the discovery of their real character and purposes renders such removal necessary. From district to district and ward to ward, they move along, toiling not nor spinning, yet thriving on the generousities of those who vainly imagine that they are doing true works of charity and mercy. When all resources fail them in one city, they are helped by the poor authorities to another city, there to pursue their avocations with renewed zeal. What our societies need, to protect themselves against these and kindred evils, is a full and accurate interchange of information, such as will thoroughly suppress these family tramps, by rendering their removal from city to city unproductive.

If the object of this Conference of Charities is to bring into communication all who are interested in these social questions, for

the purpose of consulting and of devising methods for the amelioration of the conditions of the needy and dependent throughout our land, it does seem to be a matter of primary importance that we do not allow years to slip by in merely discussing that peculiar method of administering charity which is commonly designated as "Charity Organization," noble and practical as I conceive it to be, until we have, first of all, made thorough effort to bring together the various associations and relief societies, as at present constituted, for work in all the cities of this nation. Each city presents peculiar phases of want, and each requires peculiar methods of treatment. Methods which may prove perfectly effective in one city may not prove so in another. In every city of our country there are wise and good men and women who are deeply interested in doing what they can for their fellow-men, and solicitous to learn the most practical ways for discharging their trusts. We need to bring all these societies—call them by what name you please—into a far more intimate correspondence than has yet been effected, or even attempted, by former Conferences. It will be time enough to decide what special plan most commends itself to our enlightened judgment when this end has been attained. With no thought of reflecting upon those who have been forward in urging their peculiar system of charitable relief upon the attention of this Conference, it does seem unwise, on all accounts, either to wave off any of the societies engaged in a work which is very near to the great heart of humanity, or even allow it to stand off, merely because it has not as yet discovered the perfection of the plan which we, by our superior wisdom and toil, have elaborated. Ought not our Standing Committee, on this special work of charity in cities, to make it the great object in the coming year to bring the recognized societies of all our cities to understand and appreciate the importance of concerted action on all the great questions which confront us as workers in the cause of charity and humanity?

ORGANIZED CHARITIES.

BY REV. C. G. TRUSDELL,

COMMISSIONER OF PUBLIC CHARITIES, STATE OF ILLINOIS.

I understand by the term "Organized Charities," not the mission of a particular society which has recently adopted this or a similar title as its name, but the necessity and form for an organized society for the purpose of the administration of charity as against indiscriminate almsgiving. If I am correct, then it is a very old thing under a new name. It has occupied the minds of the best men and women of every land and age, time out of mind ; but their views and methods have been as varied as the circumstances of time and place, and as numerous as the ills which afflict humanity. In our time, it has become crystallized and condensed into this question ; namely, how to do the most good for the unfortunate and dependent or defective classes without injuring them or society.

This embraces all charitable and reformatory institutions and work, and is the great question of the age, which it is the mission of this Convention to solve.

In the discussion of this question, we encounter a great variety of opinions and measures, all more or less good and useful. All who have given much thought to any phase of this question, or have had much experience in practical work, are acquainted with its difficulties, are painfully sensible of coming far short of their ideal, and know how impossible it is for any one form of organization to embrace all departments of charity work or to be perfectly adapted to all places and circumstances.

I wish not to antagonize any person who is trying to work out this problem, nor any methods by which he is seeking to reach this result. There are a great many institutions and societies in existence for *special* work, and their *names* usually indicate the class of work they are trying to do. This is of considerable importance. The name ought to indicate, if it does not fully describe, the thing ; and the greater the interests involved, and the greater the liability to misapprehension, the greater the necessity of choosing a name that will avoid all ambiguity and express, as far as possible, the nature and limitations of the thing intended. When we talk of "charity organization," or of "organized charities," or "associated charities," all of which terms seem to be used synonymously, as describing a particu-

lar society, I am embarrassed to know just what they mean. The name may imply too much or too little, and might mislead the uninitiated.

As to the thing, I most heartily approve and commend the greater part of it, as I understand it, as being the only efficient agency for the administration of charity in cities. As to its methods, they are certainly to be accepted, subject to local modifications. As to its compass, there is sometimes danger in attempting too much, and so failing to accomplish the most important results which might otherwise be certainly reached. I am interested in every movement that promises greater efficiency and economy in providing for the wants of the poor and the improvement of their condition by placing them above the need of help. I would be glad to see a society organized for this purpose in every city of 5,000 population, because in every city of that size there are some unfortunate people who, in certain emergencies, need some kind and measure of relief. There are also, in every such city, some impostors and would-be paupers who seek to live upon charity, who are utterly unworthy of sympathy or aid. The larger the city, the greater the number of both of these classes; and there is danger of the one being neglected and of the other imposing upon the kind-hearted and liberal. The one may suffer and die in the midst of plenty, surrounded by kind people who would be glad to aid them; and the other may fatten and ripen into the expert fraud and dead-beat upon the credulity and charity, falsely so called, of those who would rather be imposed upon than take the trouble to investigate.

How can the first most desirable object be secured,—namely, the timely and proper relief of the worthy? And how can the professional beggar and impostor be defeated and exposed? Certainly in no other way than by a society organized for that purpose. By such an organization only can all proper work be accomplished and all fraud prevented. Therefore, all who desire the best interests of society should co-operate with such an organization, and cheerfully furnish the means to carry on its work, and refer all applicants to it.

In some small cities, *one* such society can do all the charity work of every kind necessary to be done. In larger cities, it will require more than one; and other societies and institutions, perhaps five, ten, or twenty or more, are needed for special work, as hospitals, homes, asylums, refuges, nurseries, employment bureaus, kindergartens, and the like. None of these can do more than its own

special work. Hence there is needed in every city, however numerous and varied the other charities may be, a society for the general work of caring for such of the poor as are not embraced in any of these, though much of the work that will incidentally come to this society can better be done through some of the other institutions. It is necessary, therefore, that this society should be on fraternal terms with all, and that all should freely interchange views and kindly offices. I believe that, as a rule, the less complicated the machinery, the less friction in running it and the greater the results. This is certainly true in all charity work. I would give everything a fair trial that promises to reduce the sum of human wretchedness and to uplift humanity, but I think that the greatest success is to be realized by a society having one direct object and as little machinery as possible.

I have frequently been consulted by persons proposing to organize such a society as to the best form of organization. I have been compelled to answer, I don't know what may be the best form, but I give the best form I know. I will give it to you in the form of an imaginary letter, which is very similar to those I occasionally receive:—

"We desire to organize some sort of a society in our city for the improvement of the condition of the poor. How shall we proceed? Please answer the following questions: 1. Who or how many shall compose such society? 2. What shall we call it? 3. How shall it be managed? 4. What shall it undertake to do? 5. Who shall run it? 6. How shall the funds be raised and disbursed? 7. Shall we have paid or volunteer visitors?"

1. *Who shall compose such a society?* There is and ought to be no stereotyped plan of organization and no inflexible rules. Experience must be the principal teacher, and that will soon enable any society to restrict or enlarge its work. In general, we would suggest briefly, in answer to the inquiry as to how many shall compose such society, "All whom you can enlist who will give it strength and character." There is not much danger of having too many of the right kind of either men or women. But there is a point to be considered here. Every person who contributes to its funds ought to be recognized as a member of the society, and entitled to vote for its officers at the annual meetings. We sometimes have trouble in this country on account of too liberal suffrage. You cannot afford to be as liberal as the Government, or you might experience disaster for reasons obvious. I would not invite contributions from persons

who would be no credit to the society or with whom I would not be willing to meet in other walks of life.

2. "*What shall we call it?*" As everything must have a name by which it shall be known to the public, the name ought to indicate and describe the thing as nearly as possible. Why not *call it what it is?* It is not a church or club or court. It is not a bank or school or factory. It is not a missionary or detective or policeman. It is a society for the care and relief of the distressed for whom no other provision is made. Why not call it what it is? — namely, "A friend in need," or "A helping hand," or "Relief and aid," or, if you like it better, a "Provident" society, though this last does not express the idea as well as some of the others; but do not call it "Charity organization society" or an "organized charity," unless there are no other organized charities in the city, for the others might consider it an impertinence and a reflection upon them that they are not organized.

3. "*How shall it be managed?*" By a board of managers or directors, composed of as many wise and prudent men or women as you please; but be sure and have them persons of well-known public spirit and business ability and integrity, for it is a society for *business* and not for pleasure or personal profit, and it is to handle other people's money. Then let them manage it just as they would any other important trust committed to them, with a view to the greatest usefulness and economy. In order to do this, they will give it time and thought: they will reject all that can hinder, and accept, from every quarter, all that can strengthen and increase its power.

All charity has its origin in sentiment. Some person or persons recognize the existence in their community of the unfortunate and dependent classes who need help of some kind, and they determine to do what they can to meet this demand; but, when it comes to the practical application of the best means to help them, there must be no sentiment in it. We have altogether too much gush and sentiment in the administration of charity and too little common sense and business principle. The unfortunate and needy are to be helped, not ruined; and society is to be protected, not pauperized. These two things are to be constantly kept in mind by every individual and society that undertakes this work.

4. "*What shall it undertake to do?*" If there is no special work for you to do, do not organize; and, if there is, then do the work for which you organize. If some society is doing the work you would like to do, or if you think it is not doing all that might be done,

go in and help it. Give it the benefit of your superior wisdom, but do not organize another society to supplant it and so increase the difficulty, and burden the public and lead to confusion worse confounded. Do not imagine that you can correct all the evils in society, and do all the work required, or you will be likely to fail of everything; but select something that needs to be done, and do it. If it is to help the needy, to relieve the suffering, to succor the distressed, you will make that your first and leading, if not your only work. Of course, you will thoroughly and promptly and kindly investigate all cases, and register the result for future reference and for the information of any who, for any reason, may wish to inquire concerning any case. You will resist, if not punish, all attempts at fraud; you will consult all sources of information and adopt all means to the end proposed; you will refer applicants to other appropriate sources of relief, if they are not proper subjects for your society; you will advise, warn, encourage, sympathize with, and help, as may be necessary, all who come within the sphere of your work.

5. "*Who shall run it?*" Any capable man or woman who can be secured for that purpose should be employed as superintendent or agent, for such portion of his or her time as may be necessary and on such terms as can be agreed upon, under the direction of the board of managers or directors.

6. "*How shall its funds be raised and disbursed?*" The raising of the funds is the easiest part of it. If your society is needed, the public will understand that necessity, and will cheerfully supply the necessary funds; or, if information is needed, there are well-known methods of imparting it. The disbursement will be governed by circumstances, and according to the judgment of the board.

7. "*Shall we have paid or volunteer visitors, and how many?*" If capable volunteer visitors can be had, who will do the work promptly and well, of course economy would decide in their favor; but, if they cannot be had, then you must have paid visitors, and enough of them to do the work.

This closes the correspondence; and now perhaps you are ready to ask, *Are there any such societies?* I answer, *Certainly*,—many of them. There are societies organized on this plan in several cities. Some of them have been in successful operation for many years. They have done their work as best they could, under the circumstances, with the light and means at their disposal; possibly not always in the most effective and economical manner, but always being capable of learn-

ing and improving by experience. I will speak particularly of one with which I have had the honor of being connected for the last thirteen years as superintendent, and which has in that time disbursed over \$6,000,000 in cash, besides half as much more in goods and other forms of relief. The Chicago Relief and Aid Society was incorporated in 1857 by special act of the legislature of the State of Illinois, and did such work and in such a manner as the Board of Directors thought wise, until the great fire of 1871 swept away \$200,000,000 worth of property, and threw one hundred thousand people in the street. In this great emergency, the city authorities of Chicago invited this society to undertake the work of providing for this multitude, and disbursing the funds which the spontaneous sympathy of the civilized world was sending to our mayor by millions. The manner in which that work was done is now history, and need not be enlarged upon here. It was not ordinary charity work, however. The classes of people embraced were not paupers or to be numbered among the dependent classes. It was simply a great calamity met by the marvellous liberality of all lands and applied by special measures. Since that trust was discharged, the society has been limited to its original line and methods of work, with this exception; namely, having disbursed a large amount of money to charitable institutions which were crippled by the calamity, the society is accorded certain rights and privileges in these institutions which we find very valuable, as it enables us to do much of our work through them.

The Chicago Relief and Aid Society has for a quarter of a century been doing effective work on this line so successfully that I hesitate not to say that no city of the same size provides for its poor at so small a cost or has a less percentage of pauperism; while, as to its street beggars, it has less in proportion to its population than any city in the world.

I have no doubt that many societies exist in other cities, under a variety of names, that are doing the same work for their respective localities, just as effectively as it has been done in Chicago.

My theory and experience are that there should be *one* independent society, and only one, in every city to co-operate with the country authorities, each to give in proper cases only what the other does not. I do not believe that there is any city where one such society cannot do all the work. If in any city where there are several societies they will consolidate, they will need no supervising society. If the multiplication of aid societies in any city is allowed, then the existence of

some acknowledged central authority may be useful ; but when there is but one, and that one is doing its appropriate work, no other is needed.

It is hardly necessary to qualify this statement by reference to the St. Vincent de Paul Societies, which are to be found in every city, or the aid societies in many churches, or the societies in operation for special nationalities and fraternities. These are very numerous, but limited in their operations ; and the measure of relief given is very small. They help rather than embarrass, if a good understanding is maintained with them.

I have but a word to add ; and that is that the Chicago Relief and Aid Society is not my system : I did not create it. One of the ablest lawyers—a distinguished philanthropist—drew the bill for its charter. The Board of Directors, composed of a large number of the best business men in Chicago, worked it for several years, up to the time of the great fire in 1871. That emergency required a largely increased board and a division of the work into several departments, with appropriate committees over each. They employed hundreds of visitors, both men and women,—some volunteers and some paid. The board gave their entire time, and came in personal contact with thousands upon thousands of applicants of every grade and for all imaginable things. They had opportunities to study this whole question, such as no body of men ever had before ; and they evolved out of their experience the present perfected system which has been in practical operation for thirteen years.

The society owns the building known as Relief Block, a five-story brick 30 x 80 feet, fitted up for offices to accommodate the various departments of the work, with directors' rooms, which are open for the free use of all societies to hold their meetings there. At first, we gave offices free to the United Hebrew Relief Society, the German Society, or Deutsche Gesellschaft, the Woman's Christian Union, a free employment bureau for men, and an employment office for women ; also, desk room for the secretaries or agents of any other societies who wished it. After a few years, this was abandoned, as most of these societies preferred quarters elsewhere, as being in their estimation better adapted for their work, and the facilities for co-operation quite as effective. We have experimented with wood-yards, free lodging-houses, and various other things, but have discontinued them. We do not now undertake to do anything whatever for able-bodied single men or women beyond temporary lodgings and a meal or two and a reference to appropriate channels for employment. We

have come to the conclusion that, if we look after the sick, aged, and infirm, and men with large families who are temporarily disabled, and widows and deserted women with families, that single able-bodied people should be thrown upon their own resources, and take the consequences. All cases of permanent disability or chronic pauperism we refer to the county authorities.

THE RELATIONS OF ORGANIZED CHARITY TO PUBLIC AND PRIVATE RELIEF.

BY JAMES W. WALK, M.D.,

GENERAL SECRETARY OF THE PHILADELPHIA SOCIETY FOR ORGANIZING CHARITY.

By "Public Relief" I understand relief given to the poor out of funds raised by taxation or, as it is well named in England, "poor-law relief." This is either out-door, *i.e.*, granted to paupers domiciled at their own homes, or in-door, granted to paupers in poor-houses.

In relation to these forms of poor-law relief, a charity organization society may act in one of three ways :—

1. As a co-operating agency.
2. As a partial substitute.
3. As a complete substitute.

The first of these positions is occupied by the London society, and by most of those in this country. Under this plan, the society endeavors to utilize the public bounty by referring to its almoners and sending to its institutions those applicants for aid who appear most likely to be benefited and least likely to be injured by relief in this form. These, generally speaking, are the chronic cases,—helpless by reason of advanced age, incurably diseased or incurably pauperized. Hopeful cases are usually managed by the society without an appeal to the poor-law. The society also endeavors, by its investigations and registration, to guard the almoners of public relief against imposition.

The second position is that held by a few American charity organization societies, which have assumed part of the functions heretofore performed by the poor-law authorities, have secured the abolition of out-door relief, and have themselves undertaken the task of either finding or furnishing all the relief necessary for the out-door poor.

Under this plan, the society continues to use the poorhouse for

such incurable cases as cannot be provided for elsewhere, and continues to invoke the legal powers of the poor-law guardians in matters relating to settlement, desertion, and illegitimacy; but, aside from these, it boldly shoulders the burden of the pauperism which exists in the community, and calls aloud to church and synagogue and meeting-house, to asylums and hospitals and guilds, to all benevolent associations, and to every good man and every good woman, to come up and help in the necessary work of stamping out pauperism, in the noble work of befriending the poor.

The third case is that in which organized charity wholly supplants the poor-law system, and undertakes to secure proper provision for the dependent class, whether out-door or in-door, through the utilization and amplification of private charity. I am not aware that any charity organization society has as yet occupied this advanced ground; but I think it is the goal toward which our present movement tends, and that the abolition of out-door relief is a long stage of the journey.

An obvious consequence of the discontinuance of poor-law relief would be a very large saving in the public expenditure, and a consequent reduction of taxation. This should be a sufficient recommendation, provided it can be shown that there are other sources from which the necessary relief can be procured, if the poor-tax be discontinued.

In speaking to the National Conference at Louisville, I expressed the opinion that "there exists no community in the United States where there is not enough money in the hands of benevolent citizens, and enough philanthropy in their hearts, to care for all the indigent within its bounds." The labor and study of the two years which have elapsed since then have not altered that conviction.

I admit that the practicability of so great change as is involved in the substitution of private charity for public relief can be shown only by the crucial test of experience. That experience is not yet available; but, as a contribution to the study of this question, I beg to lay before the Conference some statistics on the subject of the administration of poor-law relief taken from the official records of the city of Philadelphia.

During the five years 1875-79 inclusive, the total appropriations for the support of the poor were \$2,642,799.89, of which \$2,272,699.03 was for in-door relief, and \$370,100.86 was for the out-door poor. At the end of that period, out-door relief, except the item for medicine and medical attendance, was abolished. During the

succeeding five years, 1880-84, the total appropriations were \$1,981,187.95, of which \$1,951,247.95 was charged to in-door relief, and \$29,940.00 to out-door relief, which was exclusively medical. Comparing these two periods, we see that the change in system saved to the city in five years upon out-door relief \$340,160.86, and at the same time \$321,451.08 upon in-door relief, or the enormous total of \$661,611.94. It thus appears that the abolition of out-door relief instead of increasing the expenditure for in-door relief, as the advocates of out-door relief claim, has actually operated to diminish it.

The great cities of the United States can do without poor-law relief. It is based upon a false principle, and its effects have been injurious. I hope the time is not far distant when it will be supplanted by organized charity; for, when we shall have cut off poor-law relief, we shall have cut the tap-root of the noxious tree of pauperism.

What are the duties of organized charity to private relief? First, and pre-eminent, is *organization*. The field to be covered must be carefully studied, so that we may know just what work there is to do. Then the charitable agencies must be studied, so that we may know what workers there are; and then begins the labor of organization.

There is no work to be done in a civilized community which requires readier tact, greater patience, more persistency, than just this work of organizing the charities. It is the hardest task before us, and yet it can be done. The object in view is to have the whole territory of the city, in which we labor, efficiently supervised, so that a case of distress, no matter where it occurs, comes within the province of some one whose bounden and particular duty it is to provide for it. If relief societies already in existence can be induced to divide the territory among them so that each has definite boundaries within which to work, it is the best plan; but, if this cannot be done, new agencies must be created. A *sine qua non* to efficient work is the covering of the whole territory.

I regard the doing of actual relief work as a drawback in a charity organization society, tending greatly to obscure its real character and to hinder its progress. Several of the largest American societies, following the lead of the parent London organization, have incorporated the relief-giving feature; and some of them are now so situated that it seems impracticable to abandon it. Dangerous as direct relief-work is, it is sometimes the less of two evils. Organized charity is recommended to the community as a method by which the poor can be helped without degrading them. Its promoters

seek to turn the charitable impulse of the benevolent out of the old ruts into better channels. Unless these better channels are provided, our profession is mere pretence, and our scheme a delusion. If a society undertakes the work of organizing charitable relief in a city, it must see to it that such relief is brought within the reach of every case of distress occurring in that city, and, if existing relief associations cannot be so enlightened and liberalized as to do the work, the charity organization society *must* supply the deficiency, even if this course compels it to grant relief from its own funds.

But when a charity organization society has mapped out its territory, and secured the operation of responsible relieving agencies in every district, its responsibility is by no means at an end. The relief-giving agencies must be watched and encouraged and educated. There are two characteristics of good relief work which are often lost sight of, not only among the old societies, but among the advocates of organized charity. These are: 1. Promptness; 2. Adequacy.

Promptness is essential. *Bis dat qui citò dat* is peculiarly true in the relief of distress. A family actually destitute of the necessities of life should be helped, ordinarily, within twelve hours after their application, and inside of twenty-four hours, without exception. The machinery of decision committees and conferences works too slowly to accomplish this, and authority must be conferred upon the society's officials to secure immediate relief for these emergency cases. Not only is this promptness a part of our duty to the poor, but it is a most efficient means of conciliating the favor of the community.

Relief must be adequate. As long as we give to a man, wholly dependent upon charity, only one-quarter or one-half of what is necessary to his maintenance, our niggardliness compels him to that very *begging* which we so constantly condemn. Until charitable people are emancipated from the wretched system of doles, little true progress can be expected. Suppose I have here a burden weighing five hundred pounds, and I set about organizing a company to lift it. The Provident Society comes and lifts a hundred pounds, and the Church Dorcas Society lifts a hundred pounds, the Benevolent Mission lifts another hundred pounds, and the Poor Man's Friend Society lifts another hundred pounds. Is the burden lifted? Not at all. The force is only four-fifths of the work to be done. The burden may be pushed around and tumbled over; but it is not lifted till some one else steps in, and supplies the lacking hundred

pounds of force. So relief, to be efficient, must be adequate; and yet we hear of societies professing to take care of the poor, which never give fuel and food to the same family,—as though poor people could eat their coal and burn their groceries!

Let us deal with this question in a business-like way. Let us put a poor family's needs and resources into the form of a ledger account: on one side, all the income from members who are at work and from other legitimate sources; on the other, rent, food, fuel, clothing, all the absolutely necessary expenditures; and, when we have added up the two sides of this account and struck a balance, that balance is the amount necessary to be supplied by charity, and, until we see that it is supplied, it is mockery for us to tell the poor people that they must not beg. Such I conceive to be the duties of organized charity in relation to private relief.

I am not unmindful that this movement has other and higher objects,—to lift up, to educate, to inspire,

"To guide and lead to better ways,
To nobler purpose, higher aims."

The discussion of such themes does not fall within the scope of this paper; but I most earnestly ask you to remember that this higher work must be built upon the lower, and that, however important and attractive, it must not be allowed to engross our attention to the neglect of that which is the very foundation of our work,—the organization and maintenance of a prompt and discriminating administration of adequate charitable relief.

THE PERSONAL ELEMENT IN CHARITY.

BY OSCAR C. McCULLOCH,

INDIANAPOLIS, IND.

You remember the lame man who lay at the beautiful gate of the temple asking alms? To him, alms meant food, shelter, a man to bring him to the temple and take him home again. He had no conception of other help than this. "Silver and gold have I none,"—his heart sank,— "but such as I have give I thee. In the name of Jesus of Nazareth, rise up and walk." Here was personal charity,—help to stand on his feet again, to become a self-helpful man. "Such as I have,"—not money, not influence, but that peculiar and personal gift of sympathy, hope, courage, counsel, with which every heart is rich.

And over against this "such as I have" is a "such as I need." For each person is individual in his needs. Why did the man sit by the gate? Because he was lame. What he needed chiefly was cure of his lameness. Over against the beautiful gate of our modern civilization sit all manner of impotent folk, each with a personal and peculiar need. When some strong soul with its "such as I have" meets this suffering soul with its "such as I need," then we have the charity that is personal and that is helpful.

The personal element in charity is the touch of soul to soul, the flow of hope to the heart exhausted of hope, of courage to the heart depleted of courage. The staff even of a prophet was worth nothing to the son of the Shunamite. But the prophet "lay upon the child, and put his mouth upon his mouth, and his eyes upon his eyes, and his hands upon his hands; and he stretched himself upon the child, and the flesh of the child waxed warm."

The organization of charity in cities is no longer an experiment. It has given a reason for its existence. It is the scientific method applied to the social suffering in our towns and cities. What this Conference is to the country at large, what the State Boards of Charities are to the States, that this new movement, in co-ordinating their charitable and moral forces, is to the cities.

The ultimate object of this organized movement is to reach the individual. While, for purposes of investigation and control of causes, it deals with classes, yet its thought is to reach the individual man. In its thought, its responsibility is to the worthy and to the unworthy. That a man is a tramp, or a woman a chronic beggar, does not absolve us from our duty. To heal this sick one, to protect this weak one, to restore this vicious one, is the thing we have to do. Thus, its broad object is restoration,—not detection of impostors, not relief; the putting on his feet again him who has fallen out by the way, who "flounders in shallows and in miseries."

On its way to this end, it registers all relief and all applicants for relief; it warns the public against indiscriminate charity; it sees to it that every needy person is relieved. But its eye is fixed on the uplifting of the individual. To this end, its machinery, so called, is related. But the machinery is not the end. It is but a means. Organized effort is necessary, but only because we gain multiplied power and variety of agency by it. If the ideal were realized, we may suppose that an accurate census would be had of the dependent and delinquent in our cities; a careful classification would be made of all its disturbed and troubled and threatening classes; instant

and adequate relief would be furnished every one in real need; every church and charitable society would be in hearty co-operation; the great causes which make for social suffering would be defined, and such as are preventable controlled. Still, with all this perfect knowledge and system, it might lack one thing,—the personal element in charity. It might be, after all, but a gigantic institution, an immense society, with all the evils incident to such. In it, the individual would be lost, whether the individual worker or the individual sufferer.

I think that the tendency of all organized charity is in this direction. The history of our efforts indicates this. We ask the people to cease giving indiscriminately, to refuse the tramp or the street beggar. They do so; but, ultimately, they learn the lesson so well that they cease all personal charity. They are glad to throw off all responsibility for the social care of the poor. Their yearly subscription measures their sense of duty. "Am I my brother's keeper? Certainly not. I give my money to this charity society." Thus, charity tends to become what Milton described ordinary religion to be,—*"a dividual movable."* "I will give you ten dollars a year: you must take from me all responsibility for my weak and erring brother."

Again, we have all found that the circle of workers gradually narrows. The men are busy, and leave it to the women. The women are busy, and leave it to the visitor, to the secretary or superintendent. In such a case, the society does its work apparently well; but the soul of it is gone. It is now an institution. Could the idea of volunteer visitors be perfectly carried out, this tendency would be counteracted. But to organize and to interest these visitors is the most difficult work we have to do. It is only here and there that they are effective. Happy that society which has found a few even who have penetrated to the meaning of the legend, *"Not alms, but a friend"*!

"It strikes me," says Ellice Hopkins, "that we have introduced modern improvements into the parable of the Good Samaritan. The Good Samaritan has no need to get off his beast nowadays, and go to the wounded man; least of all, to go to the sensational length of giving up his own beast to him, and himself trudging laboriously on foot. He contents himself with the reflection that the inn is close by, where he can get attended to, and that it is his own fault if he doesn't go to it. He needn't trouble himself any longer with the question whether, as he is half dead, he isn't too far gone to care, or

to go there if he did care, but rides on with the comfortable reflection that so much is being done for people of his class."

But let us keep to the old version of the parable. The Good Samaritan stands out as the one bright example of the personal element in charity. The man lying there was his personal care. He is never to leave him until he is on his feet. He is ministered to with the remedies needed,—wine for strength and oil for healing. It will not do to leave him here to the mercies of the next chance passer-by: he lifts him upon his beast. At the inn, he remembers that it may be a long, tedious case of sickness, and arranges for his care during his absence. He will come again that way to inquire for him, and will be responsible for all expenses. So his personal care is over the man until his complete recovery. He has done more than give alms: he is a friend. We are never to be satisfied in our work until every person needing aid of any kind is put under the care of some strong, true, hopeful friend.

But is charity organization necessary to all this? Certainly. When the bad combine, the good must associate. Association gives multiplied power and variety. We search out the cause we know not. Organized charity distinguishes the mass of the poor into individuals, reveals both the causes that have acted as masses upon the whole, and the special and individual causes. Each person who falls out by the way has a personal history, is ignorant, is unfortunate, has had special reason for its present condition.

If it be recognized that in this organization of charities we seek ultimately to develop the varied powers of those who undertake charitable work, to create in them a feeling of personal responsibility for their neighbor, and to put into their care some one of the mass who is in need, then the question comes, By what methods shall we do this?

There can be no personal charity without reverence for human nature as such. We all can bear testimony to the unexpected revelations of the seemingly worst people,—some capacity for self-sacrifice, some tenderness, something that shows the presence of a nature whose divinity is only obscured, not extinguished.

"Slowly along the crowded street I go,
Scanning with reverent look each passer's face,
Seeking, and not in vain, in each to trace
The primal soul, of which he is the show."

"Slumming" has become fashionable in London: the Prince of Wales and others go among the poor. But this is only a momentary

interest. Out of it comes no good. They who do it pity for the moment, and then forget. Such belong to

"The sluggard pity's vision-weaving tribe,
Who weep at wretchedness, and scorn the wretched,
Nursing in some delightful solitude
Their dainty loves and sickly sympathies."

We are to keep in mind Mrs. Pardiggle, and not intrude upon the poor with suggestions which, however well meant, may be unwelcome. The handkerchief which gentle Esther Summerson laid on the face of the dead baby was the delicate courtesy of a heart which was full of sympathy.

"We have no right," says Sir Walter Scott, "even with the best intentions, to intrude upon the poor." Each poor man's house is his castle. Each suffering heart knows its own bitterness. I often think of that exquisite delicacy of Jesus, who would not look up when they brought the woman before him. He suffered for her and with her. We can do nothing, unless we see, as he saw, the divine humanity in each one,—broken, disfigured, deformed, all but obliterated. This, and this only, gives the impulse to personal charity. It is this insight into, and respect for, human personality that give power to the stories of Dickens, Hugo, and Bret Harte. Let us approach them with respect and human interest. Raphael could see in the face of a Roman contadina the divine motherhood of Mary.

If we keep in mind the "such as I have" of each human soul, we can at once see the resources at command in the work of personal charity. As each blade of grass differs from each other, so each nature is different from each other. It needs but human interest in some one person to call out the varied wealth.

Our reports will be found to be full of illustrations of what has been done. I know of one lady who takes into her home, each week, six girls. With the help of her four daughters, she teaches them to sew, to cook. They read some book, sing together, do fancy-work. Each one of these girls is dear to her. Another case was that of a young girl,—waif and stray. She had never known a home, had been left at a county asylum, and then at the Soldiers' Orphans' Home. She was dying of consumption. A lady took her into the country, visited her at the hospital, kissed her, stood by the grave, and wears a thin ring left by her.

You remember the *Summer in Leslie Goldthwaite's Life*, and will find in Mrs. Whitney's books many suggestions; Glory McWhirk,

and her longing for "good times," which she was finally "in." These things tell of the longing of the poor for some of the gladness of the world, in which they have no share. Why not take a few boys or girls out into the country for a day?

In one instance, twelve women have had work all winter, sewing aprons. Two ladies cut out aprons, give them to certain specially selected women, sell the product. The enterprise is self-sustaining.

In another case, the same number of women are given work in making over the clothing gathered by the benevolent society. Here the contact is personal, and the relations close.

Each Thanksgiving time I have urged that persons come to the office and get the names of families to whom they shall take a Thanksgiving dinner. We find that one such visit interests the giver in the family.

When "the time draws near the birth of Christ," I put a notice in the papers, stating that I have the names of several thousand children whose Christmas will be a barren one. I ask the children to come to the office and get the names of the children to whom they may take Christmas presents. Several hundred names are thus given away. Quantities of toys and books are sent to the rooms. Out of this grow relations of personal interest. I can think of a number of instances of permanent benefit arising from this personal contact. I have tried the same thing with coal, asking that any one wishing to supply fuel to the poor will let me send them the name of a family to whom they may take it, instead of sending it through a society.

A system of associate visitors has been tried, with enough success to warrant its continuance. The names of a number of ladies are secured, who, it is thought, would act as visitors. Some one family living near is put into the care of such a visitor, with a letter giving personal history, suggestions, and with a Visitor's Hand-book.

A line of personal work which can be taken up in every large city is that to which Octavia Hill has given herself. Miss Hill has now three thousand tenants under her care. Mrs. Lincoln, in Boston, is doing a similar work. The evils of absentee landlords are not confined to Ireland. In every city there are those miserable tenements which might be made over into homes, if some woman would undertake it. The collection of savings in New York and East Boston is another phase of personal work. The Boys' and Girls' Clubs will be another direction of personal work. The *Christian Union* and *Christian Register* have given many accounts of these. They gather boys

and girls from the streets, or working girls, and give them the pleasure and brightness of a tastefully furnished, homelike room.

I used to find in the circulars of the Henry Wadsworth Clubs or Legion many instances of similar work, and miss the greeting of that little sheet, with its news. I turn to the columns of the *Christian Register* headed "Charities and Reforms." Might it not be some one's personal work to collect for us reports of good work done by the many men and women whose hearts God has touched?

The range of personal work is wide. Out of the "such as I have" has come all this wondrous variety of modern civilization. Whatever one has in overplus or abundance, another, somewhere, has need of. Over against one's own house is some one in sore need. Our duty always lies next us.

The great need of the poor is justice, not alms; then human interest. The strong Central Council can do something to secure justice,—the justice of better wages, of purer air, of better homes, better food, fewer saloons and pitfalls. The human interest will bring the wealth of personal love to the want of it in any individual.

As indicating some of the larger needs of the poor which may be undertaken as personal work, I indicate, first, the moral education of the young. The decay of the heart begins about twelve. I have had a young girl come to me saying: "I want to get away. I want to be like other girls." I feel that here lies some woman's mission. The pamphlet issued by the State Charities Aid Associations of New York is rich in suggestions.

Second, amusements for the poor. You have only to think of the grim look of the ordinary lives of the poor to see the need. What if our lives were barren as theirs of beauty and pleasure? Read Walter Besant's *All Sorts and Conditions of Men*, and imagine a "Palace of Delight." The only gathering place of the children is the street; of the men, is the saloon or the cheap theatre. A pitiful article appeared in the *Contemporary Review* of October, 1880,—*"Lazarus appeals to Dives."* It is written by a working man, asking for food for the mind in lectures and classes, for the soul in things beautiful and amusing.

In Cleveland is the Educational Bureau, organized by C. C. Bolton. In London, the dream of Besant—the Palace of Delight—is now being realized. One girl face haunts me, beautiful to look upon, soon to yield to the poison of the life she is leading; hungry for beautiful things, for the gladness she saw in the world, and in which she had no share.

If some one would take up this as a personal work, as Octavia Hill has taken up the tenement houses, a noble result would follow. Or take boys or girls into your homes, or distribute plants or flowers, as is done in London.

Out of all this comes life,—life which is the touch of a higher motive,—inspiration, hope, courage, wiser living. And thus the great gulf between the rich and the poor will be filled up by those

"In this loud, stunning tide
Of human cares and crime,
With whom the melodies abide
Of the everlasting chime,
Who carry music in their heart
Through dusky lane and wrangling mart."

In conclusion, I would call attention to the *Life of Edward Denison*, the writings of Ellice Hopkins, MacDonald's *Robert Falconer* and *David Elginbrod*, Helen Campbell's *The Problem of the Poor*. These belong to the inspirational class of books, "the literature of power," which will do much by way of suggestion.

CHARITABLE PROVISION FOR THE AGED.

BY C. S. LOCH,

SECRETARY TO THE LONDON CHARITY ORGANIZATION SOCIETY.

Charity has many admirers, but few faithful friends. The admirers serve her at a distance, and are ready to pay her tribute; they are eager for new schemes of relief, and for a time they advocate them as though they had found in them some peculiar and permanent virtue; and they often attach an exaggerated importance to the reforms they have promulgated. The friends of charity take schemes of relief at their true value, and use and advance them only on one condition,—that they extend the sway of their ideal, that charity of patient hopefulness and personal duty and devotion, without which relief becomes but a transfer of goods and societies, conferences and committees become antiquated and inefficient,—become, as we say, wooden, and harden into knots of routine and officialism. The admirers compound for their charity with relief: the Friends trust wholly in Charity, and have faith in her, as if she were their ruling spirit. They have *themselves* to save the weak from degradation,—the weak who are rich no less than the weak who are poor,—and to

raise the degraded to a more human level; and they can at least as often do this without relief as with it. If this be true, the scope of the question of "charitable provision for the aged" is large. It is not merely a question of providing relief. The most charitable provision is to make provision by charity — *i.e.*, by charitable relief — unnecessary. Charity, therefore, will endeavor by general methods to give the poor, and those most exposed to distress, the means of making certain provision for themselves; and, when she cannot do this, and ought, nevertheless, to interfere, she will try to remove the distress by some plan specially contrived to meet the wants of the individual. For the former, we want science. We have to compare methods, and study the history of our present arrangements for the promotion of thrift and for mutual assurance, and then, if possible, to introduce and develop schemes which may affect the people at large. For the latter, we want combination in charity.

Were a Brobdingnagian to step in and out of our streets and between our houses in search of specimens, he would pick up a most interesting boxful in a few strides across London. There is the common almshouse, — *ptochium vulgare* or *parochiale* we might name it, had we a scientific terminology for such things. There is what we may call the special almshouse, to which inmates are admitted on the nomination of trustees, — sometimes very great people indeed, — without limitation as to residence. There is the benevolent institution, the almshouse attached to some trade or business, such as, say, the Goldsmiths' and Jewellers' Annuity and Asylum Institution. Then come the pension societies of every description, for members of certain trades, for residents of a certain age, for residents not in receipt of out-relief and who can be kept off the rates, and so on. Another genus are the pensions and almshouses, if I may so call them, of the Poor Law. These alms or work houses of the Poor Law are large, even enormous buildings, sometimes not unattractive outwardly, with a garden and flowers, but within, when properly managed, machines of stern routine, regularity, and discipline, such as men and women fear; and to this mechanical existence they will often prefer what will seem to them a natural life outside, though it be a life of want and uncertainty. Besides these, again, there are the pensions procurable through the post-office and other savings banks, and the friendly and trade societies. On the lamps of public houses — the places of entertainment and assembly rooms, which are still the most convenient rendezvous for the working classes — will be seen the mysterious letters

"A. O. F." or "M. U. O. F." or others. These denote that a branch of the Ancient Order of Foresters, or of the Manchester Unity of Odd Fellows, meet at that public house ; for, like a thing sprung from the people, out of a mixture of good-nature, conviviality, and mutual help, have sprung up the large friendly and benefit societies, to which we look with most hope for the development of thrift in the nation. It is impossible to give statistics of any value as to the number of individuals that should be grouped as beneficiaries under each of these divisions. Besides, mere considerations of number do not help much in drawing conclusions useful for practice. I will only try to give one or two specimens of each genus.

Of the common almshouse, I remember one example in the Gray's Inn Road. It has two inscriptions. The first is this :—

This almshouse was Erected by ALEXANDER STAFFORD Esq in y^e year 1663 ; For the Maintenance of Ten poor people (viz.) Four men and Six Women being all un-Married and being Inhabitants of that part of the parish of St. Andrew's Holbourne which lyeth above the Barrs. To which Mr. JOHN WRIGHT his Executor Added very Considerably : The said ALEXANDER STAFFORD Esq Gave Thirty Pound a year for ever towards y^e further Reliefe of 14 Poor Women belonging to an Alms House at Froome-Selwood in Somersett-shire, being the Place of his birth.

This is the second :—

Mr. RICHARD WHITE late of Baldwin's Gardens in this Parish, who died the 24th of October 1748 left by his will £500, the Interest of which for ever to be apply'd for the better support of the Poor inhabiting these Alms Houses.

These inscriptions are evidence of the way in which many of our almshouses came to be built and endowed. The Stafford almshouses are a block of small houses, which seem to be looked down upon by every passing 'bus, and are dwarfed by the houses that have sprung up on each side. For such almshouses as these, there must be many applications for admission, as one inmate after another gives up his life tenancy. They are to be found in all the old centres of London and suburban life. Thus, at Greenwich is Queen Elizabeth's College, founded in 1558, with an income of £2,200, besides minor endowments. It consists of almshouses for married couples and spinsters. Each couple receives 10s. a week and two tons of coal a year, and other gifts at Christmas. And in the same parish is another large charity,—the Earl of Northampton's Charity, or Trinity Hospital. It had, in 1880, an income of £6,436. There are

two establishments, one at East Greenwich and one at Shottisham, in Norfolk. "Candidates must be poor men of good character, widowers, or unmarried, who have resided in the parish of Greenwich not less than four years next preceding the date of their appointment, who have not during that period received Poor Law relief (other than casual or occasional relief in case of sudden sickness, calamity, or accident), and who, by reason of age, ill health, accident, or infirmity, are unable to maintain themselves."* There are out-pensions also for thirty men,—twenty from the parish of Greenwich, ten from three parishes in Norfolk. Six of the pensioners receive £36 and the rest £26 a year. The trustees are the Mercers' Company; and there is a Committee of Nominators, composed of the vicar and church-wardens, "the High Constable of the ancient parish of Greenwich," and others. Similar conditions are commonly required for admission to these older endowments; and a comparison of the regulations of almshouses of various dates up to the present time would, I believe, show how, with some special modifications and additions (originating out of the circumstances of later times or the whims of pious founders), we have crept on from precedent to precedent in this branch of social work, no less than in others that are more manifest to the world at large. But an almoner can very seldom hope to obtain admission for his *protégés* to such institutions; and, compared with the largely increased population and the host of possible and actual candidates, the provision they afford is extremely small. A greater publicity should, however, be given to the work of the trustees and administrators of these charities. We have a Central Commission—Charity Commission—for the judicial control of endowed charities, and this object might be accomplished through their instrumentality. It should, without difficulty, be possible to ascertain what the funds of each charity are, by whose selection candidates are admitted, who the present inmates are, their age, the grounds of their admission, etc. If the trustees furnished to the Charities' Commission not merely a financial, but a general report on such points as these,—a report such as public opinion requires voluntary charities to publish as a matter of course,—the commissioners might compile from these materials and issue a year-book of the utmost value, which could be bought for a few shillings. The general almoner might then be able to obtain assistance for suitable aged cases to a greater extent than is at present possible.

Of the second species I have mentioned—the special almshouse—

* See *The Charities' Register and Digest*, published by the London Charity Organization Society.

there could hardly be a better example than the Charter House, modelled in its present form in 1611, and, like many other almshouses, a relic of the monastic system applied to new uses after the Reformation. The conditions of admission to and benefits granted by this famous foundation are of more than local interest. Its inmates must be "deserving men of good character, being or having been officers in the army or navy, clergymen, merchants, or persons engaged in trading, professional, agricultural, or other similar occupations, who have become reduced by misfortune or accident, without their own wilful default." They must be members of the Church of England. They have an apartment, with coal and candles; their rooms are kept clean by a nurse; and they have extra attendance, when necessary, owing to sickness. They dine in hall, and have a supply of bread and butter daily. They receive £36 a year, and a black cloth cloak once in two years. There are eighty inmates. The admission is in the hands of nominators, among whom are the Queen, the Prince of Wales, and other great people. This is an antique provision for the distress of "those who have known luxury, and are reduced," who, Burke used to say, "meet with most of my compassion." For this class, too, there is, among others, another notable almshouse for merchants,—Morden College, Blackheath. It was founded at the end of the seventeenth century for Levant merchants; and, subsequently, its benefits were made available for a larger class,—for "such poor merchants as are fallen to decay by accidents of the seas or otherwise, in the way of merchandising." No quieter retreat in green peacefulness and a "happy garden state" could well be pictured. There are, besides the inmates of the college, "fifty out-pensioners."

These are instances enough of our almshouses where, among old people, old customs and quaint usages find a quiet corner, where they may live on and linger; and these institutions, if the admissions be carefully regulated, are useful for, what must be by comparison, a few cases of distress. Of what should be the principles of admission, I will speak later on.

We now come to almshouses of a more modern type, erected in the present century, "supported by voluntary contributions," and managed on a *quasi*-commercial principle,—the voting system, as it is called. This plan was evidently adopted in order to prevent the patronage of the institution falling into the hands of the few who might form the committee of management, and in order to give each subscriber a share in the patronage of the institution, and a

quid pro quo for his money. It has of late years been much criticised. The expenses of canvassing and the traffic in votes were the principal objections to it; but, in some instances, modifications have been introduced for the partial removal of these evils. Yet, unless the subscribers are willing to intrust the selection of candidates to an annually elected committee of management, it does not seem possible to prevent the election rather of the best befriended and most favored candidate than that of the candidate, or one of the candidates, whom, after a consideration of all the circumstances, it is most charitable to admit. It is inevitable, therefore, that at present there should often be many candidates for a few vacancies, that many candidates should stand for several elections before being chosen, and that there should be much delay and much tedious uncertainty. In the forthcoming election for the Royal Hospital for Incurables at Putney, there are 101 candidates for 9 vacancies. At the National Benevolent Institution there are, at the next election, 173 candidates for 21 pensions. Recently, a pension of £20 was obtained from the United Kingdom Beneficent Association, after a delay of five years and an expenditure of nearly £200 on circulars, postage, etc. The candidate stood for fifteen elections. Of such institutions as these, the almoner can make little use, unless he is prepared to spend time and money in letter-writing and the circulation of cards describing the particulars of the candidate's case, and to study, with something of the cleverness of an electioneering agent, the list of donors, the voting value of their donations, and the chances of a miniature electoral campaign. But, if we exclude benevolent institutions, properly so called, there are not very many of these charities for the aged. In several of them, such as the Christian Union Almshouses, the inmate is required to have a small income of 4s. to 6s. a week; and the house only, or house and coals, are provided. This is the case with the Homes of the Aged Poor, the rules of which are, perhaps, the best of any institution of this kind. And, as types of methods of making charitable provision for the aged poor, I would submit to you some details (1) in regard to these Homes; (2) respecting the Tower Hamlets Pension Committee; and (3) the plan of raising pensions adopted by some of the District Committees of the Charity Organization Society.

1. *The Homes for the Aged Poor.*—The following are the rules for admission:—

Applicants must be at least sixty years of age, bear an unexceptionable character, and have no friends or relations who are wholly

able to support them without charitable assistance. They must have an income, in the case of single persons, of not less than 4s. or more than 6s. a week; and, in the case of married couples, of not less than 6s. or more than 10s. a week. They have also to provide sufficient furniture for their own room. No person in receipt of outdoor parish relief is eligible. An annual subscription of £2 12s. must be paid in respect of each single person or married couple. Strict inquiries are made into the character and circumstances of applicants. 1d. a week is charged as rent, to give the committee the legal status of landlord; and 1d. a week is charged for medical attendance. In 1882, the inmates numbered 106, resident in seven homes.

Here, as in the Trinity Almshouses at Greenwich, we find that the regulations are framed with special reference to the system of Poor Law relief. In this and some other characteristics,—*e.g.*, the personal visitation of inmates, the endeavor to enforce the duties of relations and to promote thrift,—the Homes for the Aged Poor are like the Tower Hamlets Pension Committee. The Committee of the Homes in 1884 state in their report that “the salutary rule that an income be guaranteed to each of the inmates prevents the Homes from becoming the abode of pauperism, and induces friends and relatives to come forward and support the aged persons in whom they are interested. In many instances, the money for weekly payment is intrusted to and dispensed by the lady visitors, to whom the committee desire to express their thanks for the material assistance they render, in this and other respects, to the work of the charity.” “There are,” it is added, “no office expenses, because there are no paid officers, and no office.”

2. *The Tower Hamlets Pension Committee.*—In the Tower Hamlets Pension Committee, “the working expenses are entirely defrayed by the committee”; the pensions are paid by almoners, “generally ladies, whose weekly visits are looked for as bright spots in the lives of their aged friends, quite independent of the material help they bring. The almoners watch carefully to ascertain that the contributions from friends or children, which are intended to supplement the pensions, are regularly paid; they encourage cleanliness and tidiness even in the poorest houses, help and comfort their pensioners in sickness, and report any change of circumstances which may affect the cases.” “Applicants for admission must be poor and aged, have made genuine efforts after independence, and have no near relatives able to provide for them. They must be resident in

East End Unions, where out-relief has been or is being abolished. The amount of pension varies according to the circumstances of the case ; but it never exceeds 4s. a week, nor is it granted for more than six months at a time. Persons in receipt of parish relief are ineligible." There are 89 pensioners.

3. *Charity Organization Pensions.*—The Charity Organization Committees do "not undertake to find the pensions which deserving chronic cases need, but endeavor to procure them from charities and from private persons." And the Kensington Committee have adopted the following rules, which are similar to those of the Tower Hamlets Pension Committee, and which may be said to be generally adhered to by the District Committees : that the proposed pensioner shall be of good character ; that he shall be unable to support himself by his own exertions ; that he shall have made reasonable efforts to provide for old age. The committee will make allowance for exceptional difficulties against which he may have had to contend : that there are no relations, on whom he has either a legal or a strong moral claim, able to help him, without other charitable relief ; that the help the committee are able to procure is really sufficient. The committee endeavor to obtain the pension by applying :—

"1. To relations, former friends, or employers ; or others upon whom the distressed person may have some kind of claim.

"2. To some of the residents in the district, who have already expressed a willingness to give such assistance, and who have either placed money in their hands for the purpose or have consented to be applied to as occasion arises.

"3. To some local charities.

"4. To subscribers, or other residents, by means of a special appeal."

In the East End districts of St. George-in-the-East, Stepney, and Whitechapel, most of the pensions are obtained through the Tower Hamlets Pension Committee, for whom the local committee of the Charity Organization Society make inquiry in all such cases. One of these — the Whitechapel Committee — writes as follows : "We have about 20 standing pension cases, which go on from year to year, and are pensioned up to 4s. weekly by the Tower Hamlets Pension Committee. These pensions are, in each case, made up to about 7s. weekly from other sources ; e.g., clergy, other private persons, relations of the applicants, former employers, club allowances, small earnings of the applicants themselves. The pensions are given

through the clergy or lady almoners, and the cases are revised half-yearly. We have 3 standing pension cases, which are not helped by the Tower Hamlets Pension Committee. In the year ending Dec. 31, 1884, we obtained three new pensions, two from the Tower Hamlets Committee and one through advertisement from the Central Office. We also sent up three or four cases to the Tower Hamlets Committee, which were rejected by them as not being sufficiently good cases, and accordingly were ultimately decided by us in the same sense." In other poor districts, pensions are raised partly from private persons and from local sources and pension charities, but also to a great extent through the Central Office by advertisements in the press. In other districts, again, a large sum is raised locally. Thus, the St. Marylebone Committee, in 1884-85, were dealing with 79 pension cases "by help received from the clergy, from some charity, from private persons, and, when necessary, by a supplementation from the Committee's Pension Fund." In Kensington there were, in that year, 43 pension cases. In several districts, no pensions at all are given. The District Committees of the society are now providing for about 390 cases.

I should add that, as there are almshouses and asylums for the aged, so are there pension societies, some of them possessed of incomes of six to eleven thousand pounds, managed on the voting system. But, besides these, there are small local societies, such as the Stepney Relief Society, which, after election, gives, besides other relief, "winter and life pensions." And these societies, whatever their imperfections, are often administered by those who are, by proximity, and not by sympathy only, neighbors of the poor, and who may have thus a greater influence for good.

We have now before us specimens of some of the principal genera of this great family of charitable almshouses and pensions. And we may draw our conclusions and inferences.

It is remarkable of how many of these classes we have had to say that for the ordinary almoner there is little hope that he will be able to secure the benefits of them for those in whom he is interested. There is the inevitable law that charitable institutions tend to create the demand which they were established to meet. And institutions are likely to be always surrounded by a crowd of applicants, who hope to have a share in their bounties. Thus, even in the case of the Homes for the Aged Poor, it was reported, in 1883, that there were still some fifty candidates on the secretary's books, and that some of the candidates had been waiting nearly two years for

admission. If old institutions are limited by the amount of their endowments and the size of their premises, those of our own time are limited by the scantiness of contributions forthcoming, even in the most attractive causes. Persons who are asked to contribute pensions seem "to get so little for their money," or are uneasy because "there seems to be no end of it" in a pension case. And yet, within certain limits, this is as it should be. There is no remedial power in relief of itself; and, were relief easily procurable, the world, already only too willing to substitute contributions for charitable effort, might become even more contented, and make even less effort than it now does. All these schemes of relief must be considered merely subsidiary to other purposes, therefore, and supplemental.

We come, then, to the following conclusions : —

1. We will try to regulate our relief to the wants of the applicant, — not as institutions tend to force us to do, to sort our applicants according to artificial conditions of relief.

2. For this purpose, we will create combinations of workers, guided by certain principles of charity, rather than institutions; and the more, as in the case of the Homes for the Aged Poor, institutions assume this form, the better. Thus, for instance, in the mere matter of the amount of relief granted, the sum may vary in each case precisely according to the payments of relations, the earnings of the applicant, etc., if there be co-operation in charity: whereas an institution would usually give a fixed amount, regardless of the assistance that might be forthcoming from relations and other possible additions to income.

3. But, in such a plan as that of the Tower Hamlets Pension Committee, we have probably the maximum adaptability to the circumstances of each individual; and, what is no small advantage, the charity is a living charity, which, if it does not continue to meet an actual want and loses touch of the spirit of the time, may disappear, and set free whatever charitable effort it condensed for other, perhaps more pressing, perhaps more beneficent, work in the future. The evil of most institutions is their inadaptability.

4. In all matters of thrift or saving, we would wish to create the maximum certainty that the advantages of self-denial will be reaped. We would wish to eliminate chances; but, in relief, we would aim at creating no such certainty. Nor would we have, if possible, any expectancy. The less, therefore, we establish institutions for this kind of relief, and the more we rely on private charity, the better.

5. In many cases of distress, if personal care is forthcoming, we may relieve conditionally. This is another great advantage in the plan of a combination for personal and private charity, as against institutions. A man of two or three and twenty, who has a wife and one child, is out of work. There is a definite prospect of work in a month. Relief may be given on condition that the man joins a club, and the case closely attended to till that is actually done. In this and many other ways, the poor man's necessity becomes charity's opportunity; and relief becomes, as it should be, merely the alloy in an act of charity. Thus, the man makes better provision for himself in his old age than any that could be given him by means of relief. And, in the case, also, of old persons, a pension is given with much better results, if it be given conditionally, on the assistance of relations and subject to periodical revision, in order that, among other advantages, the relations should not, after a time, withdraw their interest and their share of the alms from their own kith and kin, because "church ladies" or "charitable ladies" have befriended them.

6. The utility of relief may generally be tested by the degree to which it tends to the thrift and well-being of the community. Accordingly, unless there has been some unusual misfortune, it is right, in pension cases, to require some evidence of thrift, and to make thrift a condition of relief; for the supply of pensions is, and must be, very limited, and the circumstances of those who need them are otherwise so much alike that adherence to this condition will exclude none whom it is possible to assist in this way.

7. This leads to the question of a division of labor with the Poor Law, or State charity. I think it may be accepted as a reasonable principle that, as thrift is not made a test of out-relief, and as it is very desirable that, at least in pension cases, there should be such a test, persons in receipt of out-relief should not be assisted by part pensions from charity. The poor require to understand the methods adopted by their betters very clearly; and, when they understand them, they will arrange their lives accordingly. If there is a chance for out-relief and a chance of charity, they will try for both. If out-relief is withdrawn, and pensions are, generally speaking, given on condition of thrift, they will do without the out-relief; and the pensions may act, indirectly, as an inducement to thriftiness. On the other hand, if out-relief were given (as Mr. G. C. T. Bartley has suggested) on condition of thrift, and gradually reduced in amount, it is possible that the poor might in that manner, also, be educated to thrift.

8. But the method of dealing with these cases by co-operation in charity is, it may be said, open to many objections. Many and skilful visitors are wanted. Lack of numbers, and want of training and knowledge, may mar the plan entirely. Against this, we must set our faith in the educative influence of charity. People have hardly yet been taught — much less have they learnt — what is the cost of charity. Given an old couple to be befriended, and their sons to be persuaded to help them, these two things can only be done by a corresponding amount of effort. Were the almoner placed in the dilemma: Do so much, and you do nothing; do so much, and you accomplish all, he would learn, as he now seldom learns, from the ordinary works of charity. And preachers of the pulpit and of the press might make it clear to the philanthropist — the “sugary” philanthropist (to use Carlyle’s adjective) — what charity requires of him, what the ransom of one’s fellow-man by charity entails. Institutions are a fine sieve, through which it is hard to strain charity. So Edward Denison, in an outburst that would seem almost profane to many, writes: “Charity, too, is a frightful evil,—not real charity, but subscription charity. Every human being has scope enough for all the money and all the effort he can spare in behalf of misfortunes that are known to him personally or to members of his home circle. The gigantic subscription lists, which are vaunted as signs of our benevolence, are monuments of our indifference.” And, on the other hand, personal charity may be like that of the Bad Squire’s Lady:—

“Can your lady patch hearts that are breaking
With handfuls of coals and rice,
Or by dealing out flannel and sheeting
A little below cost price?”

The institution may add to our difficulties; but, without it, we may not be better off, unless the spirit of charity be with us.

I have referred to a division of labor between the Poor Law and charity in making provision for the aged. If there be no out-relief (and I here take for granted that it is right to reduce and, if possible, to abolish out-door relief), and if, generally speaking, the rules which I have quoted above are applied in deciding what pension cases should be assisted by charity, there must be some old people, decent and, in the ordinary parlance, “deserving,” who will find their way into the house. Thus, it was found, in 1884, that there were four hundred and thirty-two blind persons in the London workhouses.

And every pension charity for the blind in London has applicants without end. So long, therefore, as persons of this class are in the workhouses, there is a necessity for classification, and even more perfect classification. And, in time, people will learn what opportunities for charity the workhouses and the infirmary and the district school offer to any who have kind hearts, time, and discretion. But, as out-relief is reduced, it falls to the charitable, by co-operation and through such funds as that of the Tower Hamlets Pension Committee, to provide more and more completely for the thrifty poor, so that, by degrees, the distinction between those who should receive Poor Law relief and those who should not may become more marked, and the thrifty poor, who fall into distress in old age, may be "kept off the rates."

If the law is enforced, there is an advantage in assistance by the Poor Law. There is a legal claim on relations for the maintenance of those assisted. All related within the degrees of parents, grandparents, children, and, till recently, grandchildren, are liable for the maintenance one of the other; and husbands are liable for the maintenance of their wives and children. But relations by marriage are not liable; *e.g.*, a father for his son's wife. How much can be raised in this way is shown by the returns of one Union near Bristol, where, only £242 15s. was collected from relations in 1869-70; but, in 1881-82, when attention was paid to the matter, £1,523.* When relations, well able to assist, refuse to do so, it is reasonable, therefore, to throw the responsibility directly upon them; and, if the Guardians "offer the house," the relations, who see no disgrace in the receipt of out-door relief, are sometimes induced to come forward, when there is no alternative but "the house" for those whom it is their duty morally and legally to assist.

I quoted Burke's words about "those who had known luxury." They are preceded by these: Burke "disliked the cant concerning the poor. The poor are not poor, but men, as we are all born to be." As men, the poor must, in many ways, look after themselves; and, in making provision for old age, they have at least established a system which, already powerful for good, is capable of enormous development. First, there are the benevolent institutions or societies, which have been founded in most instances in the present century. They are usually part charitable, part provident; and the admission is often by election of the subscribers. Thus, the Benevolent Institution for the Relief of Aged and Infirm Journeymen

* See Introduction to *Charities' Register and Digest*, p. 34.

Tailors, founded in 1837, has sixty inmates and an income of about £2,400 a year, of which £160 is raised by members' subscriptions, while £896 17s. is received at the annual dinner. Aged and infirm members or their widows are eligible. The admission is by election, after the case has been approved by the Board of Directors. A member's subscription of 7s. entitles to five votes. Subscribers, also, of £1 1s., or donors of £10 10s., have five votes. "The institution is supported by the voluntary subscriptions of master tailors, supplemented by the subscription of 7s. per annum, paid by each journeyman member. No master tailor is eligible for election to the benefits of the charity. Candidates must be journeymen tailors. They must become members before forty-five years of age. Each inmate of the asylum receives a pension of £21 a year, and has two furnished rooms, coals, and medical attendance." The management is in the hands of twenty four directors, of whom twelve are masters and twelve are journeymen. They are elected annually by the subscribers. Many of these institutions give pensions: some give pensions, and assist members and their families, when they are in need. They are, in fact, friendly societies for tradesmen and shopkeepers, supported by payments from the men and donations from the masters, just as the friendly societies, properly so called, are for artisans and laborers, and are supported wholly by the men on some more or less sufficient system of mutual assurance.

I need not give details regarding friendly societies or trades unions; but it is obvious that a society such as the Ancient Order of Foresters, which is established to secure for members, among other benefits, a weekly allowance during bodily or mental sickness or other infirmity, and, in old age (*i.e.*, after fifty), the relief and maintenance of orphan children during their minority, and the provision of a sum of money at the member's death, and which gives these benefits, varying in amount according to different scales of contributions, for payments of 2s. 9d. a quarter and upwards, has in it a fund of preventive efficacy, which no relief society can have. And such a general society may be supplemented by the trade society. Thus, the Amalgamated Society of Engineers "offers to members the advantages of donation when out of work, assistance in sickness, accident, and old age," and provides for the burial of men and their wives. In the Foresters there are 633,228 benefit members, 296 districts, 4,866 courts or branches, and £3,584,161 in court and district funds. The "sickness" pay in 1883 amounted to £382,507. The annual income of the Amalgamated Society of Engineers is about £125,000.

If one form of charity is better than another, it is, all will allow, preventive charity. What function, then, has preventive charity, if she "dislikes the cant concerning the poor," and is ready to treat them as men and women, "as we are all born to be"? The friendly societies form a basis for this preventive charity; but an extension has to be made in two directions,—for the benefit of boys too young to join an ordinary friendly society and for the benefit of women. Suppose it became a regular custom to draft boys, as soon as they began to work,—about the age of fourteen,—into Boys' Friendly Societies. Would we not then do more to make the generations, as they grow up, thrifty and provident than by many lessons and much preaching? In 1879, a local friendly society ("The Princess Royal," Ancient Order of Foresters) was established for boys at Stepney, with benefits similar to those of other friendly societies. The entrance fee is 6*d.* Between the ages of 8 and 11, the weekly payment is 1*d.*; from 11 to 13, 2*d.*; and from 13 to 15, 2 3-4*d.* At 16, the boy can join any sound court of the Order of Foresters. There have been 272 members since the society was established, of whom 97 have been suspended for non-payments and 69 transferred to an adult court of the Foresters: 106 remain on the books. The total membership of Juvenile Foresters' Societies has risen from 4,858, in 1867, to 53,613, in 1883, and the proportion of funds in hand from 10*s.* 6*d.*, in 1871, to 23*s.* per member. This is a better system, it appears to me, than that of school savings-banks, good as that may be under certain conditions; for it is not possible to withdraw the money periodically, as in a savings-bank, and the boy's connection with a friendly society may lead to the man being placed in comparative security for life. If these friendly societies were generally established, the almoner could often give the family assistance on condition that the children joined the society.

On the question of the soundness of friendly societies, I cannot say more here than that it seems to me that, as the community learn the great value of these societies, and expect more and more from them, they will, with or without special legislation, become more responsible, and develop into sounder actuarial and financial conditions. This at least is what has been taking place in the last twenty years.

For women, also, friendly societies are now being established; and great as are the advantages now offered by our post-office savings-banks, the benefits of the friendly society, if combined with reasonable security, may be far greater. There is a Society for Women

at Oxford; another, called the United Sisters' Friendly Society, at Long Melford. But perhaps the best commencement has been made by the Women's Protective and Provident League, in connection with which there is, besides two other small societies for upholsteresses and tailoresses, a society for women employed in book-binding, which was established in 1875, and has now an income of £764. The entrance fees of members are from one to two shillings, and the subscription is twopence a week.

It is remarkable how closely efforts after mutual assistance have linked themselves to trade organizations. And if it be argued that, as is the fact, many of the poor do not earn enough to make any, or at least any sufficient, provision for old age, it must be remembered that only as trades have become organized has even what is now accomplished become possible. Unorganized and intermittent work has not in it the elements out of which thrifty habits can be wrought. Those, therefore, who would not look at the mere surface of the question must be interested in promoting any change which will give continuity to labor and improve its quality. The industrial question, and the moral question which is bound up in it, lie at the root of many of our difficulties. As they may be answered and solved, these difficulties are likely to diminish; but, if there is to be a greater tendency toward a further degradation of labor, and toward an increase in casual or "job" work, it must year by year become more difficult to make any satisfactory provident or charitable provision for the aged poor.

A FREE PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT BUREAU.

BY HORACE F. BARNES,

SECRETARY OF THE BAPTIST CITY MISSION, NEW YORK CITY.

In a speech at the fourth annual meeting of the Charity Organization Society of New York City, the Hon. Abram S. Hewitt well said, concerning the aim of the society, "The problem is to reduce the number of the poor by finding channels of occupation for them, so that they may not feed and prey upon the product of the industrious." To solve this problem, I venture to affirm that the prime need in every great community is a Public Employment Bureau.

There are, at all times, thousands of unemployed people in every great metropolis. At the same time there are many employers desir-

ing help, yet unable to secure it. To bring these two classes into intelligent relationship would be an achievement that would make the Charity Organization Society one of the greatest public benefactors.

The unemployed may be distinctly classified: first, the skilled laborers, or those with talents for the higher grades of service. They need not be objects of concern, for they are generally well able to look out for themselves. Many of these are often out of work. But it is not for a long time. They are seldom in great want. They are generally self-reliant. They do not frequent employment bureaus. During a long connection with a free employment bureau, I never failed to get a place quickly for a skilled laborer.

Second, the unskilled laborers, or those capable of doing only rude and simple work, such as that in large factories or on railroads, wagons, wharves, or public works.

These are often out of employment. Occasionally, the depression of business enlarges this class to appalling numbers. These persons of both sexes, though, it must be admitted, it is largely on account of strikes, intemperance, or idleness, need to be aided in getting work, both for their own and for the public good. They store up very little money ahead. Their families are generally large. Any reversal of affairs sends multitudes of them to benevolent friends and societies, and often to despair and crime.

A third and very large and very troublesome class are those who know nothing in particular, do nothing in particular for any length of time, and who live chiefly on the proceeds of odd jobs and mendicancy. They are the despair of landlords and health boards and charity guilds, and continually people our penal institutions.

A fourth class is composed of women of all ages and degrees of ability and need, from the accomplished yet friendless governess to the raw domestic. This is a very important and numerous class to serve.

Now, what general plan, of a comprehensive and practical nature, can be devised to rescue all of these needy classes from poverty, idleness, despair, and crime, to keep them at peace with society, to inspire them with self-reliance and hopefulness? No golden visions of luxury can be held out to them when markets are overstocked, when the lathe and the loom are idle, the merchant fleet lying empty in the dock, and money everywhere locked up for lack of good investment. A way of relief should be devised, so that single benefactors, and even the greatest charitable societies, should alike see and know that the best and most that could be wisely done is being daily accomplished.

That way is by free aid to the people in their search for employment. The Scriptures teach that, if any will not work, neither shall he eat. Yet none should starve while there *is* work, simply because they cannot find it. Yet to find it, and get people at what they can do, is a hard and responsible task. Searching inquiries, good judgment of men, thoughtful regard for employers, wide knowledge of city affairs, and an unlimited stock of sagacity, patience, and promptitude must be incessantly in action. Arrangements must be so systematic and efficient that thorough business men should be assured there would in no case be any tampering with their confidence.

As an outline for a general plan, the following hints are respectfully submitted:—

In each large city or town there should be, at some central place, a well-advertised office, with accommodations for the assemblage of large numbers of people. It should be free to employers, and free to all unemployed persons who have lived in the city for one year next preceding the date of their application. This office should be open daily, except Sundays, throughout the year. It should supply labor outside of the city as well as in it, although receiving applications from no unemployed persons not resident. The range of information as to places of work should be as wide as possible. Information concerning employers and employment-seekers should be full, definite, and trustworthy. The methods of dealing with all parties should be simple, that none might have hard work to ascertain how to secure the benefits of the bureau; also very prompt, to avert the bitter disappointments of delay.

In brief, the bureau should be so managed that, on the one hand, an employer through it might easily meet some of the best available persons in the city, at the time of his application, without danger of being overrun by too many or by those of no use to him; and, on the other hand, so that the employment-seeker might find, with the least difficulty, any situation really open to him, either in city or country. Branch offices might at length subdivide and facilitate the work of providing conveniently for the unemployed in widely separated sections of a large city.

This bureau should be distinctively a charity, supported by voluntary contributions (perhaps aided by the city authorities), yet conducted under the most rigid rules of business efficiency.

Such, in outline, is a needed measure for the public relief, suggested by several years of mission work and supervision among the multitudes in New York City.

When the pocket and stomach of ancient Athens were empty, Pericles gave government money and bread and olives. Rome's populace were in desperate straits. They were fed by the Senate, and amused in the circus. France becomes poor, and the red flag of the Commune leads an onset to abase all the prosperous. Modern trades unions fetter employers, try co-operation in their own name, and are surprised to find that hindering the natural foremen of society, or using brainless force, does not, in the long run, butter their bread. Churches feed and clothe the poor, yet are compelled to stand aghast at the ever-lengthening procession of those who wish to be cared for. Contentment and general prosperity cannot be brought about by the gift-giving of the rich or the strife of the poor. Besides the supreme panacea of the divine blessing, there is but one feasible remedy to the discontent and troubles of the unemployed; that is, employment. Give each person an opening for independent self-support, a chance to preserve self-respect. Let your kindness not only lay strong constraints upon the best energies of each individual needing work, but point out the open fields for their employment; and so you will have done the best thing this world offers for the present good of its needy populations.

BETTER HOMES FOR WORKINGMEN.

BY ALFRED T. WHITE.

The condition of the homes of the poor and the manner of life thereby forced on the working classes of our largest cities, if unrestrained, grow worse as a city grows larger.

It is not yet fifty years since, in 1838, the first tenement house in New York was erected in Cherry Street. There were on Jan. 1, 1885, 26,859 such houses, containing much over half the entire population of the city. During 1884, above 1,013 such houses (costing under \$15,000 each) were built.

New York has already distanced London in the overcrowding and consequent unhealthiness and demoralizing tendencies of the tenement districts. A graphic description of these was contributed by C. F. Wingate, Esq., to the New York *Tribune*, and published in the Sunday editions for seven weeks, beginning Nov. 23, 1884. All large cities of this country are moving in the same direction as New York at rates of speed varying with the local conditions, and every means to arrest these tendencies must be employed.

There will be no dispute that every workingman should own his own home, if possible, or, next to that, should hire and live in a separate house. These possibilities now exist in all but a few of our cities.

In Philadelphia, the Building Societies have accomplished a work in enabling the average workingman to own his home, which commands the attention of the world. They work on the knowledge that many a workingman can lay aside a few dollars every month, and so become in a dozen years owner of his house free of debt, who would never have the self-denial to lay up \$1,000 to buy a house outright.

In Boston, Brooklyn, and elsewhere, efforts have been made to provide single small houses; but the dearness of land and of brick place such houses (which cost from \$1,000 upwards, exclusive of land) out of the reach of average wage-earners and within the possible grasp only of men able to pay at least \$15 per month, if in the outskirts, or \$18 and upward in the cities; while on New York Island the charge for the same accommodations would be raised of necessity to \$25 and above per month.

The Beneficent Building Association of Philadelphia (capital \$52,800) has lately erected some single houses $13\frac{1}{2} \times 16$ feet, three stories high, consisting of three rooms, one over another, with a "hanging bath-room," extension, a novelty in small-house construction. These are rented for \$12 a month.

The six-room brick cottages in Warren Place, Brooklyn, rent for \$18 per month. They are 11 feet 6 inches front by 32 feet deep, and cost \$1,150 each, exclusive of land, in 1877.

In London, the Artisans, Laborers, and General Dwellings' Company, Limited, owning three large estates, has built about 4,000 houses. It is astonishing how cheaply well-built brick houses can be furnished within a quarter of an hour's ride by underground road, of all parts of London, and yet few workingmen can afford to hire them. This company furnishes eight-room houses on plots 16×85 , for twelve shillings per week; six-room houses on 15×70 , for ten shillings; five-room houses, eight shillings; and, on plots 13×60 , four-room houses, for six to seven shillings weekly. Their net income was in 1882 over £50,000, paying five per cent. per annum on the capital stock of £955,000. The writer saw no finer sight in London than the Queen's Park Estate of this company, Harrow Road, with its 2,250 houses and five miles of streets,—a city within a city, and of most attractive appearance,—the fronts varied, little

court yards with grass and flowers, asphalt walks and Macadam pavements.

Where such building conditions exist as in Philadelphia, every effort should be made to restrict the introduction and multiplication of tenement houses; that is, houses occupied by several families using any portion of the house in common. In many cities, unhappily, the tenement house is an unavoidable accompaniment of the nineteenth century drift of city life, which goes on steadily increasing. From these cities, it cannot be eliminated; but the evil can be, should be, and must be controlled. The sooner the whole subject is understood and the remedies applied, the greater will be the saving in money, health, and life to the community.

In the improvement of the conditions of tenement houses there are three plain directions in which work can be helpfully done; and, in one or the other of these ways, almost every one can lend a hand. They are briefly:—

1. The erection of new and better dwellings.
2. The improvement of existing houses.
3. Legislative or municipal restrictions.

There is no conflict between these methods. One individual is adapted to aid in one way, while another has the opportunity to help in another, and all are immediately essential.

Can decent and healthy houses be furnished to the laboring classes in all our cities at rentals not greater than they already pay for improper and unhealthy apartments? Unquestionably, *Yes*.

The conditions which make this possible, even in the most crowded city of our republic, are far different from the conditions which make it well-nigh, if not quite, impossible, in London.

In London, the day laborer and, in general, the class of men and women earning the smallest weekly wages, cannot, even if regularly employed, be furnished in any new building with the necessary minimum of two rooms, with or without a scullery, for the rent they at present pay. This is a permanent barrier to the decent housing of the very poorest class in London, except by charitable aid; and even the Peabody Buildings are complained of, with some foundation, as not reaching really the poorest of the laboring classes on account of too high rents, though they are let considerably below fair market values.

This condition in London, and the well-known efforts of Miss Octavia Hill and others to amend it, have contributed doubtless to the spread of the idea that it is likewise impossible in this country

to house the poorest classes in new and improved houses, with a fair return on investment; but this view cannot be tolerated. It is easily possible to furnish two rooms and scullery, with separate sink, closet, etc., in a new, well-aired, well-lighted, healthy edifice—a *home*, entirely in the control of the occupants and complete in itself—for from \$1.50 per week upwards; and this sum is within the ability of the poorest paid class of able-bodied bread-winners, when employed regularly, or of a better paid class employed spasmodically.

There is, of course, a class of people who prefer squalor and darkness to decency and light, who need moral reformation, before they can properly be moved into better surroundings. While these squalor-loving classes form a large part of the poor population of London, they are a small minority of the laboring classes in this country; for ambition to do better is the first and moving impulse of every immigrant to our shores, and this ambition, once aroused, would grow here continually, were it not overborne by conditions so hostile as to annihilate it, and often to create torpor or despair. While the world lasts, exceptional cases will exist, requiring exceptional treatment. These cases must be helped out by exceptional means or by actual relief, whether in new houses or in their old homes. Working men and women who can pay for decent accommodations, and anxiously desire such, ought not to be left where they are, because one-tenth of their number could not, or would not at the moment, avail of better houses, if offered them. The report of the Tenement House Commission of New York City this year shows that the tenants are in advance of their surroundings.

In all efforts to promote the much-needed reforms in the living conditions of the poor, it must be kept in mind that any ventures which do not yield a fair return on the money invested are likely to be cited as arguments *against* efforts to secure legislative action seeking to impose healthful restrictions on existing or future buildings. Until "philanthropy and five per cent." happily joined hands in Sir Sidney Waterlow's Improved Dwellings in London, remedial legislation in England was difficult, if not impossible.

The possibility of the provision of such homes has been abundantly proven in New York, Boston, and elsewhere. In one of the poorest and most uninviting districts of lower New York, 48 and 50 Mulberry Street, an excellent new building was erected some years ago, which continues to shine as a bright light in a very dark district; and the same owner controls a block of improved dwellings on West 26th Street, near Tenth Avenue. On the East side, at the corner of

Grand and Corlears Streets, a fine building was erected a little later ; and in 1880, on First Avenue, between 71st and 72d Streets, a plot of ground 200 feet square was built up with three blocks of six-story buildings, accommodating 200 families.

The last-mentioned property belongs to the Improved Dwellings Association, and is the largest single undertaking of the kind in New York City. These houses have staircases in the rear, open to the light and air. Most of the sets consist of three rooms, some of two, and a few of four rooms. In addition, a scullery, with separate water-closet, wash-tub, and sink, is provided for about half the sets ; in the remainder, one water-closet is provided for every two families, and a public laundry, with hot water supply, for every twelve families. All have convenient access to coal lifts and ash-shoots. Rentals run from \$6.75 monthly for two rooms on top floor to \$14 for rooms on first floor. The capital of the company is \$300,000. The buildings were estimated to cost, with the land, about \$240,000 ; but the failure of the building contractor during the construction increased the cost to nearly \$280,000. The earnings have sufficed, however, to divide five per cent. per annum, besides laying aside \$1,000 a year as a sinking fund.

In Boston, the attempts of individuals and of organizations at various times have met much success. The East Canton Street Estate of the Boston Co-operative Building Company may be cited as an illustration. This property was built by the company about twelve years ago, and cost \$150,000. Their last report says :—

There have been good order and health in the houses during the year, and the rooms are readily let to good tenants.

The number of tenants is one hundred and twenty-six: they occupy from one to four rooms each. A few tenants have been ejected in the year for bad conduct, but only one for non-payment of rent. No rent has been remitted or excused ; and the whole amount due at the end of the year, from tenants remaining in the house, was \$22.50, which was paid in the following week.

Total Rent for year 1884,	\$15,901.50	
Less loss by vacancies,	\$238.50	
" " non-payment,	37.25	275.75
		\$15,625.75
Paid to Agent,	\$531.50	
for Repairs,	1,844.48	
Taxes,	1,883.60	
Water Rates,	648.00	
Insurance,	115.25	
Office Expenses and Sundries,	35.58	
Cleaning,	36.83	
Legal Expenses,	18.89	5,114.13
Net rents received and paid to Treasurer,		\$10,511.62

Miss Mason has built a house consisting of single room tenements only, which supply the wants of many and are always let.

A new "Improved Dwelling Association" has just been incorporated in Boston, with a capital of \$250,000, of which a large portion is already subscribed for the further erection of improved tenements in that city.

In Brooklyn, the enterprise initiated in 1876 continues to render complete and equal satisfaction to tenants and owners. The five blocks of tenements are built with fireproof stairs and open balconies sunk in the front of the building. Every family has its own separate scullery, containing water-closet, sink, wash-tub, and ash-shoot. In the last four blocks, each apartment is entered from a short private hall. No bed-rooms open into each other or into the living rooms, thus securing complete family privacy. A census and financial report of these houses and of the thirty-four small houses near by in the same property are given in Note A. The expense account includes a variety of items, such as reading-room, music (a brass band of six pieces, fortnightly through the summer), and dividend to tenants. This last is a species of practical co-operation, working in the same direction as the discount given for payments of four weeks at a time in advance,—a visible recompense to those who by promptness, neatness, and good order contribute the most to the success of the enterprise. These dividends form a great incentive to the tenants to cultivate habits of neatness and promptness. They are paid in May every year to all tenants of apartments who have remained a full year and obeyed the rules of the company,—five dollars to tenants of sets of two rooms and scullery, and ten dollars to all tenants of larger sets, averaging nearly one month's rent to each tenant. The proportion of day laborers and sewing women in these houses is greater than in any of the London buildings, showing that they reach here to humbler classes.

Of the larger London Companies, it may be said that the Peabody Trust showed, in 1883, 3,553 dwellings, occupied by 14,604 persons, and the Improved Industrial Dwellings Company 4,066 dwellings, occupied by over 20,000 persons. The latter has accumulated a large surplus after paying five per cent. per annum regularly.

To those who incline to erect improved dwellings for workingmen, the following hints may be of service:—

Location.—Choose a district where tenement houses *are being built* by speculative builders. These watch the drift of population closely. You can afford to pay as much for land as they can; and high cost is

no detriment, *provided* the value is made by the pressure of people seeking residence there. Choose preferably the border land of the tenement district to the heart of it, unless your undertaking is a very large one.

Size of Plot.—The larger, the better; for a large plot allows superior arrangements for light, air, playgrounds, and also permits the engagement of the whole time of a competent man or woman as agent and superintendent of the buildings.

Accommodations.—Three rooms and a scullery are the accommodation sought by most workingmen, but two rooms and a scullery suffice for small families of two or three people. Learn what rents are paid by the average workingman in the locality selected, and plan building so that your rents average the same, giving the tenant as many conveniences as this average rental will allow while returning a fair interest on the investment. In determining this, it is well to remember that the government considerations should be: *first*, domestic privacy, the foundation of morality; *second*, sanitary condition, the mainspring of health; *third*, comfort, convenience, attractiveness.

For those who have not the means to buy and build, either individually or collectively, another way is open, namely:—

Old houses will long continue to exist and be occupied in default of better. While the building of better houses rests on the idea that the surroundings influence the individual, especially the children of the family, the work of Miss Octavia Hill and her followers may be said to begin with the individual rather than the surroundings, and to depend on the personal relation of the landlord or agent to the tenant. This work is of inestimable importance, profitable to all classes of the poor, and the only possible method of reaching the shiftless, the intemperate, or the unambitious.

In 1864, Miss Hill laid her ideas before Mr. John Ruskin, who at once advanced about £1,000, to enable her to secure a lease for fifty-six years of three houses. Since that time, her work in and influence upon the homes of the poor have steadily widened and deepened, until she has become the energizing centre of a large body of efficient workers. Nothing can be more to the point than her words, written nearly twenty years ago:—

I have tried to remember, when it seemed hardest, that the fulfilment of their duties was the best education for the tenants in every way. It has given them a dignity and glad feeling of honorable behavior which has much more than compensated for the apparent

harshness of the rule. It is wonderful that they should prize as they do the evenness of the law that is over them. They expected greater toleration, ignorant indulgence, and frequent almsgiving. In spite of this, they recognize as a blessing a rule which is strict, but the demands of which they know, and a government that is true in word and deed.

The method followed by Miss Hill has found many excellent illustrations in this country. Among those within the knowledge of the writer are the successful efforts of Miss Ellen Collins and Miss O. H. Dow in New York, of Mrs. A. N. Lincoln in Boston, and of Miss Edith Wright in Philadelphia.

What can be done in the old and miserable tenement districts of New York can be done anywhere in the world, and few places have ever had as bad a name as Gotham Court.

This famous block of buildings, next to the largest tenement in New York, is located at 36 and 38 Cherry Street. It abuts on the street, running in two hundred and thirty-four feet, with an alley nine feet wide on one side and seven feet wide on the other. Up to 1880, its record for disease, disorder, drunkenness, and crime, was almost unparalleled. In 1880, the property was leased by Messrs. D. Willis James, William E. Dodge, and W. Bayard Cutting, who made extensive repairs and improvements. At that time there remained only fifty-three tenants. There are now one hundred and twenty-three, all apartments being let. It is at present in the charge of Miss O. H. Dow, assisted by her sister, one or the other of whom visits the place daily, and sometimes at night, always meeting proper, respectful treatment. The tenants are mostly Irish. Notwithstanding the general character of the neighborhood and the old reputation of the house, the halls, stairs, and apartments are all kept wonderfully clean, and, together with the demeanor of the tenants toward the ladies, testify to the uplifting power which a quiet, firm, and sagacious lady can exercise upon the characters and habits of the poorest classes in the worst districts by assuming the duties of landlord or agent. Rents now range from \$3 to \$8 monthly, and the net return in 1881 and 1882 was six and one-half per cent. on the investment.

In striking contrast to this success, a word may be said of the neighboring "Big Flats" at 98 Mott Street. This building, the only tenement in the city larger than Gotham Court, was erected in 1884 as a model dwelling, and was in its construction a great advance over then existing tenements. Originally, a separate water-closet was provided for each family. All these have been removed except

those on the ground floor. Dust and dirt cover the stairs like a carpet, so that the hard stone steps are soft to the tread. Of the ninety-two apartments, twenty-two are vacant. The rest are occupied by a mixed population of Polish Jews, Irish, Italians, and Chinese. The rental of three rooms and a pantry on second floor is \$9.75 per month. It appears, however, that at no time have the "Big Flats" had an agent equal to the preservation of peace or the enforcement of any rules. The moral is plain: A well-built house, with fireproof halls and iron stairways, will become a residence of the lowest and dirtiest classes, unless the manager or agent leads or compels them to habits of neatness and order. A building must be not only made good, but kept good: rules must not only be framed, but enforced.

At the corner of Water and Roosevelt Streets, and near Gotham Court, is a block of six old houses, some of them formerly dance-houses, bought a few years ago by Miss Ellen Collins, and transformed at small expense into healthy and decent homes. The yard space has been made a cheerful garden spot, where the tenants are permitted to grow plants, and are glad to avail of the privilege. There are forty-two families, mostly Irish, residing in the building, which is in care of a janitor; and the character of the residents, as well as the neighborhood, has gained greatly under judicious government enforced by the new owner. (See Note B.)

In Boston, Mrs. Lincoln has made a similar success with old tenement houses hired and managed by herself. (See Note C; also, an "open letter" by Mrs. Lincoln in the *Century* of 1884.)

In Philadelphia, Miss Edith Wright, who contributed a valuable paper on "Relations of Landlord and Tenant," published in the *Monthly Register* of March 15, 1884, has lately undertaken the improvement, in an outlying district, of forty-one houses, with two hundred and fifty occupants. These houses, built twelve years ago, had acquired a reputation for dirt and disorder; while the surroundings were as unhealthy and disagreeable as possible. Miss Wright has leased and renovated them, and finds an immediate response on the part of the tenants to the new conditions and regulations. "A fever of cleanliness and a crusade against dirt, as contagious as disease," have succeeded to the ancient satisfaction in squalor.

Legislation.—While the service done by these and various similar enterprises to the tenants, who thus secure better homes, is great, it is less than the good accomplished in making a basis for compulsory action against unwilling landlords. Private owners always oppose all

efforts to make or enforce improved building laws, on the ground that such buildings cannot be made to pay. The only argument that weighs with the law makers in answer is the submission of proof that all that is demanded has been, and therefore can be, given to tenants while not interfering with a fair return on the investment. Just so fast as it can be shown that further restrictions can be put on new or old tenement houses without lowering the income below what other property returns, with fair allowances for deterioration and trouble, so fast legislation can be had; and nothing short of a visitation of cholera or yellow fever is likely to advance it faster than that.

But far more than the comfort of the tenants themselves is involved in the increased overcrowding of the poor, though that alone should be more than enough to stir any legislative body to vigorous action.

Crowded, ill-constructed tenement houses propagate diseases and send them out by a thousand channels to work upon the well-to-do and rich, a sure retribution for their neglect of their poorer neighbors. The stern necessity of acting for self-preservation may ultimately enforce that attention which, as a pleasant duty to our less fortunate brothers, is now neglected. Millions of money may rebuild unwholesome buildings or pay for their destruction; but who will value the thousands of lives yet to be sacrificed, and the ten thousands whose physical and moral strength is yet to be weakened every year that such conditions endure as exist to-day in many of our cities?

In many cities there is no need to wait for State legislative action: the local authorities often have authority to make or amend building and health ordinance or laws. In no way can a little work do more good than by pressing this idea on the government of every city. No city can act too early. The ounce of prevention is both better and cheaper than the pound of cure. New York should take warning from London and Glasgow, and every other city from New York. If overcrowding is not prevented, its remedy is difficult and costly in the extreme; and the longer delayed, the more costly and difficult.

The progress of legislation in England has been this: The Act of 1866 provided against overcrowding by empowering the local authorities to fix the number of persons who might occupy any tenement house. It also provided for the inspection, ventilation, and drainage of tenement houses.

Mr. Torrens' Act of 1869, amended 1879, provides that health officers shall report to local boards (such as our city aldermen or common council) any "premises dangerous to health, so as to be

unfit for habitation." A further amendment (1882) makes the Act cover buildings objectionable, not in themselves, but which obstruct the ventilation of other buildings. The Artisans' Dwellings Acts of 1875, 1879, and 1882, make a yet cleaner sweep, applying to whole districts, including streets, courts, alleys, and buildings. Mr. Torrens' Acts apply to single owners: these Artisans' Dwellings Acts apply to large "unhealthy areas," owned by many different owners, and to be remedied by an "improvement scheme," designed and enforced by the local authorities.

In applying either Act, the local board may issue an order for the improvement or demolition of all the houses in the district, upon the recommendation of the health board. The owner may thereupon make the changes or may offer to sell the corporation his property, at a price to be fixed by arbitration. This provision generally insures that the land and buildings bring far beyond their true value, and have to be resold by the corporation for proper rebuilding, at a great loss. Such a course of procedure would be unconstitutional in New York State. The fact that it is submitted to in London shows the general appreciation of the great necessity of some action; and yet the most districts of New York are far more dangerous than any in London, with its population four times as great. In one case, an area of land and building cost the corporation £700,000, and was sold (to the Peabody Trust) for £96,000.

Severe and costly as is such a remedy, it is still a remedy used in many parts of England, and in Glasgow even more effectually than London; and no lesser remedy has served the purposes at all. That such legislation is impracticable here is only an added reason for preventing by every means the fuller growth of the conditions which have led to its adoption in England. The most vital point to aim at here is the immediate improvement of the building laws as regards security of life and health. If all new buildings, from now on, can be made to offer good sanitary conditions to tenants, great advance will be made. It will still remain of vast importance to weed out rotten structures and fever nests, to open breathing-places, and to properly repair and improve existing tenements; but this can be done in time by legislation, and aided by the changes forced by trade movements, by fires, and by wearing out, provided the old errors be not duplicated in new constructions.

What conditions, then, should be imposed on the construction of all new tenement houses in the interests of the health not only of their occupants, but of the surrounding districts? In any house

occupied or built to be occupied by three or more families living independently, but using halls or stairs in common, there should be required for :

Ventilation.— Every living or sleeping-room, or room containing fixtures connected with sewer or drains, to have direct communication with the open air.

Window area equal at least one-tenth floor area, and window to have movable sash.

Where windows open on enclosed courts, such courts to be entirely open at the top and provided with fresh air inlet at foot.

At least one open fireplace in every set of rooms.

Ceiling of rooms to be at least 8 feet high in the clear.

Halls.— All common halls to communicate at one end directly with the open air by window with movable sash, and to have ventilator at roof, with at least one square foot of opening.

Lot Space.— Buildings not to cover over 65 per cent. of plot, except on corners, 90 per cent. A strip 10 feet wide to be left at rear of lot, to afford thorough ventilation to adjoining properties.

Height.— No house to extend to greater height than the width of permanent clear space in front of it, nor over 70 feet.

Air-space.— At least 600 cubic feet of air to each individual.

Cellars and Basements not to be occupied as living or sleeping-rooms, unless half above street level and with permit of board of health.

Water Supply.— On every floor occupied by tenants.

Drainage and Plumbing to be approved by board of health, and same board to provide for registry and semi-annual inspection.

Many of the above requirements are already in the laws governing such buildings in New York and Brooklyn.

For the old tenement houses, alterations in harmony with above must be compelled, and many a little spot cleared of a bad building and made a public breathing-place or small park for the neighborhood.

NOTE A.

IMPROVED DWELLINGS COMPANY, BROOKLYN, N.Y.

May 1, 1885.

The property of the Company now consists of:—

8 Houses of nine Rooms each,	}	Erected 1878-79.
26 " " six " "		
4 Tenement Dwellings of six Rooms each,	}	Erected 1876-78.
22 " " five " "		
146 " " four " "		
45 " " three " "		
18 Stores and Shops.		

269 total lettings. All let. One room of each set is a scullery, with separate water-closet, sink, wash-tub, and ash-shoot.

POPULATION.

	Adults and Children over 5 years.	Children 1 to 5 years.	Children Under 1 year.	Total.
Tenement Dwellings,	713	129	47	889
Houses,	150	14	6	170
	863	143	53	1,059

Of the 224 families residing in the tenements there are natives of

Ireland, 54	England, 14	Canada, 4	Italy, 1
United States, 52	Germany, 12	Turkey, 3	France, 1
Sweden, 40	Denmark, 4	Scotland, 2	Holland, 1
Norway, 36			

Of the 34 families occupying the small houses there are natives of

United States, 21	Canada, 2	Spain, 1
Ireland, 7	Germany, 2	Italy, 1

making fourteen nationalities represented in the buildings.

OCCUPATIONS OF TENANTS.

	In Tenements.	In Houses.
Proprietors of Stores or Shops,	12	9
Professional men,	1	1
Employed in Stores, Clerks, etc.,	22	15
Mechanics and Artisans,	92	
Boatmen,	8	2
Laborers,	50	
Miscellaneous,	15	4
Dressmakers and Seamstresses,	8	1
Washerwomen,	5	
House Cleaners, etc.,	11	2
	224	34

LEDGER BALANCE SHEET, MAY 1, 1885.

Capital Stock,	\$250,000.00	Real Estate,	\$251,505.04
Reserved Funds:—		Cash Assets,	36,766.99
Repairs Account,	8,443.77		
Sinking Fund,	20,000.00		
Profit and Loss,	9,828.26		
	<u>\$288,272.03</u>		<u>\$288,272.03</u>

Dividends of six per cent. per annum have been paid from the beginning.

The average gross receipts have been \$34,500 per annum, equal to nearly fourteen per cent. gross per annum on cost of land and buildings.

An analysis of the average expenditures per annum shows paid for:—

Taxes,	\$4,438.36	
Water Rates,	<u>960.38</u>	\$5,398.74
Allowance for Repairs and Improvements,		5,950.62

Expense Account, necessary Items:—

Agent and office boy,	\$1,162.67	
Cleaning stairs, yard, etc.,	1,004.39	
Gas in stairs, etc.,	255.20	
Removing ashes,	253.47	
Office rental value,	150.00	
Miscellaneous,	<u>552.40</u>	3,178.13

Unnecessary Items:—

Reading Room and Library,	\$325.00	
Music and plants,	180.00	
Dividends to tenants,	<u>1,176.67</u>	1,681.67
Average Total Disbursements,		\$16,209.16

The actual Expenditures on Repairs and Improvements during 1882-84 in detail average thus:—

Painting, labor and material,	\$1,876.55	
Plumbing, labor and material,	439.32	
Carpenter, labor,	452.88	
Lumber,	164.89	
Hardware,	97.19	
Glass,	71.75	
Mason, labor,	264.31	
Mixed and miscellaneous,	<u>873.02</u>	\$4,239.90
Surplus to credit Repairs Fund,		<u>1,710.72</u>
Amount allowed,		\$5,950.62

Of the item of \$1,876.55 for painting, not over one-half properly belongs to Repairs, and the balance to Improvement account, the buildings being to-day in better condition than when first occupied.

Roughly speaking, taxes, repairs, and expenses each make one-third of the outlay.

The Dividend to Tenants of Apartments who remain the full year from May 1, pay their rent promptly, and comply with the general obligations of Tenants, is equivalent to nearly a month's rent returned to each. If all received it, it would

amount to a possible \$1,960, payable to two hundred and sixteen tenants. This year, \$1,255 was paid to one hundred and forty-one tenants. Of the seventy-three tenants who did not receive it, fifty-two had not been in a full year (marking the number of changes in twelve months) and twenty-one had not been prompt enough in payment to secure it. Nine lost a small part as forfeiture for small delinquencies. No tenant lost the dividend through disorderly conduct.

Besides this annual dividend, there is a rebate of ten cents per week for payments of four weeks at one time in advance, equal to a discount of five per cent. About one-fifth *always* secure this discount, and about two-fifths *sometimes* obtain it, while about two-fifths *never* take it.

Arrearage of rent in the two hundred and sixteen tenement apartments averages about one-half day's rental for all.

The average rentals of apartments, from which discount and dividend to tenants should be deducted, are, per week, for

	1st floor.	2d.	3d.	4th.	5th.
Two Rooms and Scullery, . . .	\$2.00	\$1.90	\$1.80	\$1.70	\$1.60
Three " " " . . .	2.60	2.50	2.40	2.30	2.20
Four " " " . . .	2.95	2.80	2.65	2.50	2.40

The rentals of small houses (no discounts) are:—

Six-room Houses, \$18 per month.
 Nine-room " \$24 " "

NOTE B.

LETTER FROM MISS COLLINS.

The cost of the three tenement houses, my first purchase in Water Street, when refitted, was \$21,179. I have had them under my care for five years. The total amount received during five years, to May 1, 1885, is \$12,895.08, the total loss \$190.93.

For the three years ending May 1, 1885, the net return was over six per cent. per annum on the investment.

There are 31 families now in the houses. Of these:—

15	have	been	there	for	5	years.
1	has	"	"	"	4	"
5	have	"	"	"	3	"

Of the sixteen families who were tenants when I bought the property, nine remain to this time. One other family stayed four years, but at last it became unavoidable to dismiss them for intemperance, which was injuring their neighbors. There have been twenty-five removals in all.

There never has been any need of putting up a bill. As soon as a suite of rooms is vacant, some one applies for it. The success with the stores has been less constant.

There have been during this period seventeen deaths and twenty-one births. In the past winter, several cases of diphtheria and measles occurred.

Careful superintendence, locking of street doors after ten o'clock at night, and a good gas-light burning in the yard all night, have quite redeemed the place from its ill repute as a haunt of thieves. Clothes are left hanging on the lines

all night with impunity, and women have said that they can sleep as quietly as I can in my own home.

Opening windows in the entries, beside the sinks, has broken up the habit of accumulating refuse on the floors. Having all the water-closets in the yard keeps the air of the houses free from bad smells.

The point aimed at was fair play between tenants and landlord. Most of these people are laborers, longshoremen, and doers of jobs. It certainly ought to be possible for a well-disposed man to find a decent home for \$6 or \$7 a month, with at least two rooms. Persons who do their work at home, women who make shirts, sew fur, etc., are at a constant disadvantage if their rooms are dark, dirty, and cold; and how can they be otherwise, when the rents are high?

The rents are often so high that these people only meet the demand by taking lodgers. The consequent overcrowding is one of the most serious difficulties the poor suffer from: it operates most unfavorably on both body and soul.

Moreover, a landlord whose rents are reasonable has the strongest hold on his tenants. For the sake of keeping rooms in such a house, they will submit to rules that impose restraints useful, if irksome.

I have ventured recently to hire three more houses next door to the above, making six houses in all, with forty-five families and one hundred and sixty-one persons. The brick wall between the yards has been taken down; and now, without doubling the number of people (as these houses are much smaller than the original three), we have twice as large a yard. Besides securing better air, this affords the larger playground for the children; and often thirty or forty of them may be seen enjoying the swing or jump-rope or on roller skates. Children of neighbors come in: it is understood that their stay depends on good conduct. They have learned to respect other people's property, so that windows are rarely broken, never broken by intention, I believe. The wooden cellars they slide on, but do not break or mutilate; and the rosebushes and geraniums are not broken.

The three houses first named have twenty-four suites, consisting of one living and two sleeping rooms, and eight suites with only one bed-room each. In three instances, one family has two suites, making a whole floor. The prices vary from \$3.50 to \$8.

In view of the tendency to add "modern conveniences" and thus increase the expense, my judgment favors the refitting of old houses rather than building new ones. As the main feature of the work is personal supervision of details, there is much greater probability of success when it is undertaken by individuals than by corporations, where responsibility, except in the matter of expense, is too often and too easily lost sight of.

NOTE C.

LETTER FROM MRS. A. N. LINCOLN.

Five years ago, it was my privilege to hire (with a friend) a well-known but very ill-managed tenement house in one of the most crowded parts of Boston.

Our object in taking the house was to see whether, by close supervision and a strict adherence to rules, we could improve the condition of the tenants and also secure a fair return upon the amount invested.

In this house there are twenty-seven tenements, containing, on an average, eighty-three people. When we first took it, it had been notorious for many years,

and had to live down its evil reputation; and it took some little time to convince tenants who applied for rooms that its character for lawlessness was about to be redeemed, and that no one would be admitted or allowed to remain in the building who would not abide by the rules.

The financial statement of the first three years was:—

	Receipts.	Repairs.	Care of house.	Sundries.
1879-80,	\$1,257.05	\$10.50	\$61.45	\$73.43
1880-81,	1,442.05	59.17	87.54	117.87
1881-82,	1,441.77	40.00	118.60	166.89

	Rent.	Total of expenses.	Balance on hand.
1879-80,	\$1,000.00	\$1,145.38	\$111.67
1880-81,	1,000.00	1,264.58	157.47
1881-82,	1,000.00	1,325.49	116.28

	Loss by allowance on extra rooms.	Loss by prepayment.	Loss by rooms unlet.
1879-80,	\$145.99	\$27.90	\$186.00
1880-81,	159.20	29.70	70.75
1881-82,	133.45	31.50	47.50

The standard of the house became higher. We asked, and readily obtained, higher rents for the rooms, and, in consequence, were able to offer the tenants greater advantages.

The demand for rooms increased, and vacancies were infrequent. A spirit of order began to replace the reign of lawlessness, and an interest in the common welfare of the house and its inmates began to show itself among the tenants.

At the close of the fourth year, I decided to hire another large house in the immediate vicinity, believing that, although very ruinous and unattractive, it could be made a decent and comfortable home for the poorest class of tenants. The result has justified my expectations, and has proved to me that by careful management even a very wretched tenement house can be redeemed and made a respectable dwelling for those who cannot afford better accommodations elsewhere.

Both my houses are upon open and central streets; and I am able to give the tenants desirable rooms at very moderate prices, because the shops underneath the building bring in a good return to the owner of the property, and enable him to demand less income from the tenement portion of the estate.

My experience has been that even very cheap and poor tenement houses can be made to pay. Mine are both wooden buildings, unattractive enough in externals, but possessing within them the materials for comfortable homes for very poor people.

My opinion (formed slowly) has come to be that old and dilapidated houses should be improved and cared for by one or two people,—only time and attention from one or two who are enough interested to give a constant supervision to the condition of the houses and their occupants. A company is needed to raise money to buy and build houses, but old houses can be hired by individuals.

A tenement house need not be a source of annoyance to the neighborhood. A few years ago there were constant complaints of the noise and drunkenness of the inmates of the first house which my friend and I afterward hired. I think I can safely assume that neither of my houses is now considered an objectionable ele-

ment in the neighborhood. The tenants, although very poor, are respectable, and have learned to respect the rights of others, thus winning regard for their own.

This result has been brought about slowly and by degrees. We did not attempt too much at once. We expected to improve the character of the inmates, as we did that of the house, gradually. It has been my experience that tenants of this class often need only the stimulus which interest and sympathy give, to enable them to do better.

A strict adherence to principles and rules which are laid down for the benefit of all,—a quick sense of justice, a friendly interest in the welfare of the tenants, a recognition of the fact that there are obligations on both sides,—these seem to me to be some of the elements of success in the management of a tenement house.

X.

Uniform Statistics.

A REPORT ON THE STATISTICS OF PAUPERISM
AND INSANITY.

BY F. B. SANBORN, CHARLES S. HOYT, H. H. HART, A. G. BYERS,
CADWALADER BIDDLE, AND A. O. WRIGHT.

At a meeting of the secretaries of the Boards of Public Charities in the United States, held in Philadelphia, February 12, 1885, a committee was appointed, consisting of F. B. Sanborn, former Secretary of the Massachusetts Board, as chairman, and Dr. C. S. Hoyt, Secretary of the New York Board, Cadwalader Biddle, of the Pennsylvania Board, Rev. A. G. Byers, of the Ohio Board, F. H. Wines, of the Illinois Board, and Prof. A. O. Wright, of the Wisconsin Board, to whom has since been added Rev. H. H. Hart, of the Minnesota Board, with instructions to report at the Conference in Washington on the expediency of greater uniformity in the annual statistics which the State boards present in their reports to the State legislatures. This committee has considered the subject, and would report as follows :—

At the first meeting of this Conference, held in New York, May, 1874, a committee was appointed, consisting of Messrs. Sanborn, Giles, and Letchworth, to report on this same subject; and such a report was made, which may be found printed in the seventh number of the *Journal of Social Science*, accompanied by forms of questions, which each State board was recommended to answer in its yearly volume, so far as practicable. These questions were not found susceptible of complete answer by these boards, only a few of which followed this form in their next reports; and the suggestion had no practical result.

Since 1874, eleven years have passed, during which much experience has been acquired by the State boards then existing, and much

statistical knowledge has accumulated, which was not then available. It would therefore be easier at the present time than it was in 1874 to present with some uniformity the general facts in each State concerning pauperism and insanity. The subject of crime and punishment is so little under the official cognizance of several of the boards that it is not expedient to attempt the collection of uniform statistics respecting that in these reports. Nor will the question tables of 1874 be of much service at present in some other directions.

The subject of insanity has assumed a new importance within the past ten years, from the researches of Dr. Earle and others respecting curability, from the increased prevalence of paresis, and from the investigation of race characteristics as affecting insanity. It is, therefore, very desirable at this time to collect from as many States as possible uniform statistics in regard to the parent nativity, occupation, relapse, etc., of all the insane who come under notice, and to exhibit the statistics of a State so as to show the whole number of the insane, when possible, and to avoid the duplications which formerly were universal in asylum reports. The forms now in use throughout Pennsylvania, New York, and Massachusetts, though not quite uniform, present the general facts concerning the insane well enough; and we would recommend that these be followed (where they agree with each other) in all other States. To do this will be a work of time, and cannot begin too soon, since statistics of insanity, collected without uniformity, are of very little value.

In respect to the total number of paupers in each State, whether supported, or aided wholly or partially, under the oversight of the State board, as in Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Pennsylvania, and Minnesota, or whether other boards exist for the oversight of some of the poor, it is desirable that each State board should report upon all, and should give, when possible, the cost of their relief. Even if this were an estimate, it would be made by persons well calculated to judge, and would be much better than no report at all. The same might be said of the care of the insane, of young offenders, of idiots, etc. In regard to private charities, a report for the whole of each State would also be desirable, but would be difficult to obtain in most cases.

Under the Act of Congress passed in 1882, there is now a more uniform inspection of immigrants throughout the United States than ever before; and this is often a part of the duty of the State Board of Charities. When it is, it should be reported on annually; and the

same information concerning the newly arrived immigrants should be obtained, and put on record in each State.

In general, it may be said that, while no one form of questions can now be made to apply in all the States, it is everywhere desirable that the same information should be collected and exhibited to the public; and we would recommend frequent communication between the different boards for this purpose. It is now possible to receive uniform statistical reports from the State establishments containing the poor, the insane, etc., by which the results of institution work could be safely tabulated every year for the entire country. If some uniform statements of classification and expenditure, for instance, could be adopted, this would enable us to compare the cost in one State with that of another,—a subject which forever attracts attention and provokes discussion.

In general, your committee would recommend that a form of questions, not too extended, be adopted in all the States, and that a more minute form be adopted by those States which find themselves able to report fully and comprehensively. Naturally, all the States, as the supervision of their charities becomes more systematic, year by year, can extend the information which they present in yearly reports.

As a sample of questions that ought to be asked in each State, wherever they can be answered, the committee submitted the following schedule:—

A Form of Special Questions to be answered in Annual Reports by all the States that are able.

I. Population, Immigration, and Pauperism.

- A. 1. Estimated population of the State?
2. Annual increase by foreign immigration?
3. Number of inmates in *special* establishments for immigrants?
4. Amount collected annually under the Act of Congress of August, 1882?
5. Amount reimbursed yearly to the State under that act?
- B. 1. *Whole number* of paupers (excluding the insane in asylums) fully supported in the twelve months? Average number?
2. Whole and average number of the indigent or pauper insane in asylums during the twelve months?
3. Whole number of persons receiving out-door relief from all public sources during the year? Average number of the same? Number by report at one or more fixed dates, as in England?

4. Whole cost of full support or in-door relief *by the public* for the year? Average weekly cost of each pauper supported?
5. Whole cost of out-door relief of all sorts given at public expense for the year? Estimated average cost and length of aid for each beneficiary?
6. General classification of the subjects of in-door and out-door relief, so as to include all in the State.

II. *Insanity and Results of Treatment.*

- A. 1. Estimated whole number of insane persons in the State?
2. Number of different insane persons in all the establishments during the year?
 - a. In hospitals and public asylums,—whole and average number?
 - b. In poorhouses and private asylums,—whole and average number?
 - c. Boarded in families or living at home,—whole and average number?
3. Reported recoveries during the year? Cases recovered? Persons recovered? Readmissions of persons previously recovered?
4. Known deaths among the insane?
 - a. In hospitals and public asylums?
 - b. In poorhouses and private asylums?
 - c. In private families, prisons, etc.?
5. Cost of the care of the insane in the whole State for the year.
 - a. Cost to the State in asylums, etc., cost to cities, counties, and towns in ditto?
 - b. Cost to individuals and their estates in asylums of all kinds?
 - c. Cost to the public in poorhouses, private families, persons, etc.?
 - d. Aggregate cost of insanity?

III. *Prisons and Reformatories.*

- A. Whole number and average number of prisoners in the State during the year?
 1. In convict prisons, ranking as penitentiaries or State prisons?
 2. In convict prisons of districts, counties, or cities, and those for the lesser offences, not including reform schools?
 3. In jails and prisons of detention, classified as (a) under sentence, (b) awaiting trial, (c) as witnesses or debtors?
 4. In reform schools for both sexes?

B. Cost per annum of all the prisons except reform schools, and separately the cost of reform schools maintained by the public?

C. Inmates and cost of reform schools maintained under private or sectarian control?

IV. *Special Schools and Asylums for Idiots, Inebriates, etc.*

The committee also submitted along with its report some remarks by Mr. Wines, who did not sign the report, although a member of the committee, but who has since joined with his colleagues in a meeting of the committee at Saratoga, N.Y. (Sept. 10, 1885), when it was voted that certain forms of questions, more extended than those above given, should be prepared by Mr. Hart, Mr. Wines, Mr. Sanborn, and Dr. Stephen Smith, Lunacy Commissioner of New York, who was added to the committee for the purpose of preparing special questions concerning insanity. The new questions, when ready, will be submitted in print to the existing boards of charities in Connecticut, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, New Jersey, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Michigan, Illinois, Kansas, Minnesota, and Wisconsin, and to such boards in other States, if any exist, as will undertake to see that such inquiries are yearly answered. The paper of Mr. Wines is printed on page 390, as an important contribution on the subject.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON STATISTICS.

SIGNED BY ISRAEL C. JONES AND H. H. HART.*

In compliance with the resolution of the last Conference, the Committee on Statistics begs leave to report that it has given the subject such consideration as it could; and the result of its labors is herewith submitted.

The committee is mindful of the incompleteness of its work; but, if it serves as a ground for future investigations in this direction, its labor will not have been in vain.

The "Comparative Classified Statement of Expenses of Children's Reformatory Institutions" was prepared by Rev. H. H. Hart, of the committee; and his explanatory remarks in relation thereto are submitted, with the printed tables.

*In signing this report, Mr. Hart added the following note: "I indorse the above report, except the opinion that 'the average boy, under proper management, can easily earn at least one-half his maintenance without injury.' I am of the opinion that the revenue to be derived from the labor of reform school pupils should be strictly a subordinate consideration."

The statistics relating to juvenile reformatories cover twenty-one States of the Union and the District of Columbia. The report from the Rhode Island School for Boys was not received until after the tables were in type, and therefore does not appear in the printed tables. The committee regrets that the responses to its circular, issued at an early day, were not more general, as that would have secured a more complete report. Some institutions were probably omitted in sending the circular, owing to ignorance of their address.

The lack of information in these matters prompts the committee to suggest that the Conference take this subject into consideration; and, if found of sufficient importance, that a committee be appointed to confer with the National Bureau of Education, with the view of securing governmental co-operation and aid for this object.

Of the thirty-nine juvenile reformatories reported in the tables herewith submitted, seven are incorporated and governed by managers chosen by their respective societies; sixteen are under State, and two under municipal, control; the mode of government of the remaining fourteen is not stated.

The New York House of Refuge, on Randall's Island, is the oldest of these reformatories, having been incorporated in 1824. The House of Refuge, in Philadelphia, is next, having received its charter in 1826. The reformation of juvenile delinquents at that time was regarded as a questionable experiment; but the success of these two institutions was soon manifest, and others similar in character and purpose, though differing somewhat in minor details of arrangement and discipline, were established in some of the larger cities. Such was their success that a majority of the States directed their establishment, and others are preparing to do so.

The high estimation in which they are held may be inferred from the liberal patronage they receive. The estimated value of twenty-one of these institutions is \$5,550,097.26, and their annual support is \$993,430.92. Their aggregate capacity is 8,135 inmates, and their average numbers last year were 7,157.

Taking the above as a basis, it is probable the invested capital in all the juvenile reformatories in the United States is not less than seven and a half millions, and that their support annually of between ten and eleven thousand inmates costs not less than a million and a half dollars, only a small proportion of which is paid by the labor of the inmates. In no case do the earnings exceed one-third of the cost of support.

That so small proportion of the expense is met by the earnings is

owing in most cases, probably, to the want of suitable remunerative employment. The average age of the inmates on admission is about fourteen years, and the time of detention is nearly two years. After making all reasonable allowance for school instruction, meals, recreation, and sleep, there remain from five to six hours daily that may be, and in most cases are, devoted to work. In these institutions, the average boy, under proper management, can easily earn at least one-half of his maintenance (which is less than fifty cents per day) without injury, and with benefit to himself in the acquisition of skill and the habit of industry. Besides this, the knowledge that he is aiding in his own support tends to create and foster a most desirable spirit of manhood, and a disposition to rise above the pauper level. The committee deems this of paramount importance: and it feels that great care is needed in the management of these institutions, that an adverse spirit is not engendered and encouraged.

The committee is glad to know that the matter of employment will come before the Conference; and it hopes that the committee having it in charge will be able to suggest some practicable plan, which, while it secures to the inmates thorough industrial training as of primary importance, will also increase the revenue from that source. The returns show that only in exceptional cases do the parents or guardians contribute to the support of their children in the institutions, and a majority of the superintendents do not consider it desirable that they should. The committee regards this subject of much importance, and submits it for the consideration and recommendation of the Conference.

The committee has dwelt at some length upon the expense incurred in establishing and supporting these reformatories. It is gratifying, however, to know that this large expenditure is productive of great good, and is also economical. The reports show, according to the best information had, that an average of upwards of eighty per cent. of the inmates is reformed. This means that these establishments send out annually from seven to eight thousand reformed boys and girls, who, in all probability, otherwise would have become, in a majority of cases, a scourge to society. Cured of their delinquency, this host of children goes out of these institutions prepared to enter life with reasonable expectation of a prosperous and honorable career.

This statement presents a most cheering aspect, and all those engaged in the work are to be congratulated upon the results. If we take the low estimate of \$250 as the annual cost of a criminal, we shall get a fair estimate of the economy of establishing and supporting these institutions.

UNIFORM STATISTICS.

BY F. H. WINES.

The difficulty of securing complete and uniform statistics of crime, pauperism, and misfortune, through the agency of the State Boards of Public Charities in the States which have such boards, arises measurably from the want of co-extensive jurisdiction on the part of these boards, and the different relations which, in different States, they sustain to the work.

They differ, in the first place, in their precise function. In Rhode Island and Kansas, the State board is an executive body, in effect a consolidated board of trustees, with complete control of the institutions under its charge, including power to appoint and discharge officers, receive and expend moneys, and make and enforce rules. It is responsible for its acts, just as separate boards of trustees would be. But, in the majority of States, the board has no executive power or responsibility whatever; or, if any, it is limited in its character and extent. The State of Wisconsin has two State boards, one of control and one of supervision.

They differ also in the scope of their supervision. In the census, the classes included under the general title "Defective, Dependent, and Delinquent," were seven in number; namely, the insane, the idiotic, the blind, the deaf and dumb, paupers, prisoners, and dependent and neglected children. These seven classes are cared for in institutions of three descriptions,—educational, charitable, and penal, or correctional.

The insane come under the observation of all these boards. But, of the eleven States which have such boards, six only have public institutions for idiots,—Massachusetts, New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Illinois, and Minnesota. In the other five, idiots come under observation only as they may chance to be in asylums for the insane, institutions for the deaf and dumb, or in poorhouses. The institutions for the education of the blind and of the deaf and dumb have a double aspect and relation, as part of the educational system and part of the charitable system of the States in which they exist. But Rhode Island has no such State institution; New Jersey has one for the deaf, but not for the blind; and, in Massachusetts, the State board has no jurisdiction over institutions of this character, which are under the exclusive oversight of the Superintendent of Public Instruction. Paupers are divided into two classes, the in-door and

out-door poor; and, again, into town paupers, county paupers, and State paupers. State paupers who are either transient or have a residence or settlement in the State, but no local residence entitling them to relief at the hands of any local authorities, are recognized by the laws of Massachusetts, New York, and Rhode Island; and, in these States, the powers of overseers of the poor with relation to them are exercised by the State boards, and appropriations made for their relief from the State treasury. But this is not true, I think, of any other State. In all the States, information can be obtained by the State boards respecting paupers in almshouses; but in some States, possibly in the majority, no accurate or precise information concerning the subjects and character or amount of out-door relief is accessible to them. With respect to prisoners, the Massachusetts board has no relation to them whatever. They are under a separate Board of Prison Commissioners. The same is true of New York. In Illinois, the State Board of Charities inspects county jails and municipal prisons; but the penitentiaries are expressly excepted from its jurisdiction. The reform schools for juvenile delinquents are supervised by the State boards in all the States, but the only States which have as yet established State schools for dependent children are Massachusetts and Michigan. Ohio has a system of County Children's Homes, peculiar to itself. The mass of dependent, orphaned, or neglected children in the United States are cared for in private institutions; and the relations of the State boards to private charitable institutions are very varied. Some States make appropriations in aid of private charities: others do not. Some States do, and some do not, authorize the inspection of private institutions by State boards; and some private institutions do, while others do not, report their receipts and expenditures. These are some of the difficulties to be overcome in attempting to provide for complete statistics of the condition and needs of the classes included in the work of this Conference.

Another difference to be mentioned at this point relates to immigration. In Massachusetts, the powers of Commissioners in Emigration are vested in the State Board of Health, Lunacy, and Charity. The Pennsylvania Board of Public Charities exercises the same powers, through a Committee on Immigration. But, in New York, a separate board has charge of this branch of the work. And in other States, not having ports, no attention is paid to it, so far as I am aware.

Even with reference to the statistics of population of State institu-

tions and their finances, comparisons between States are at present, to a large degree, impracticable. The mode of support of institutions in different States is dissimilar. Minnesota, I believe, pays every dollar of expense incurred for the support of inmates of her institutions, including clothing. Ohio and Illinois collect for clothing from counties and individuals, but make no charge for board, tuition, or treatment. In Massachusetts, the State establishments are of two sorts: the pauper and reformatory institutions, which are wholly supported from the State treasury; and the hospitals for the insane and school for feeble-minded, in which a charge for care and support is made against towns or individuals for all inmates not sent to them by the State itself. Probably the majority of States provide for the support of their institutions otherwise than at the expense of the State, except in part. The degree of financial control exercised by the State boards is unlike. In Kansas and Rhode Island, it is, of course, absolute. Of the other States, it is perhaps most thorough in Illinois, where all vouchers for expenditures by the institutions are filed in the office of the Board of Charities. The financial statements contained in the reports of the State boards vary in completeness and accuracy. The modes of computing per capita cost do not agree, nor even those of calculating the average number of inmates during the year. Comparisons founded on these reports are misleading, as could be clearly shown, if it were necessary to do so. One fact only need be mentioned by way of illustration: each State has its own special system of classification of expenditures.

There remains another point to be considered; namely, the statistics of work done and results accomplished by the institutions,—their rate of movement of population, the time during which inmates are retained, the amount of sickness and mortality, the extent to which education is carried, the percentage of recovery in medical institutions, etc. How far State boards are authorized to prescribe the forms to be observed by the institutions under their care, I am not informed. How far the forms adopted in fact agree, I have not examined.

I am clearly of the opinion that a very great approximation to uniformity in statistical reports is desirable, and that it is practicable. It is too soon perhaps to pass upon the question, which requires careful study and consideration; nor is the Conference the body which ought to do it. It would be better to refer the whole subject to a special committee, to be composed of the secretaries of the State boards, with one member from each, to be selected by the board

itself, to meet at a time and place to be agreed upon, and devote as many days to the preparation of a plan as are necessary, and refer the plan, when adopted by this special committee, to the several boards for their approval. If accepted by them, it would then be possible to include in the Proceedings of the Conference, each year, a general statement of the result, by States, not naming separate institutions; and, if this were found to be too extensive for publication, the general result might even be given in the aggregate, without naming the separate States. Even in this form, it would afford a means of measuring the growth of crime, pauperism, and misfortune in the country at large, and of marking the annual progress made in public provision for dealing with it.

I suggest that the Conference act upon this suggestion, in its wisdom; but do not think that the importance of the subject warrants inattention to it.

COMPARATIVE STATISTICS OF REFORMATORIES FOR CHILDREN.

BY H. H. HART.

This statement is an attempt to reduce the expenses of children's reformatories, as given in their printed reports, to a uniform basis.

The undertaking is difficult for several reasons: 1. No two reformatories classify their expenses exactly alike; 2. Some institutions do not separate permanent expense and current expense in their reports; 3. Others disagree as to what constitutes permanent expense,—*e.g.*, in the matter of repairs; 4. Institutions differ in their method of treating expenses of the industrial department. In the reform schools of Wisconsin, Minnesota, Michigan (and perhaps in others), a part of the salaries and wages is charged to the account of the several shops, and does not appear in the salary account. In other institutions, salaries and wages embrace the entire salary list; and the offset appears in the increase of the earnings account.

The expenses, as shown in this table, are generally less than the aggregate given in the printed reports. Permanent expenses, such as new buildings, purchase of land, important additions, machinery, new heating plant, etc., have been deducted, so far as ascertainable, as well as all produce, supplies, etc., sold for cash.

This work is necessarily imperfect, because, sometimes, it is

impossible to ascertain what part of the amount given is an actual increase of the property on hand. Some institutions take an annual inventory, and show the increase or decrease as compared with the inventory of the previous year. This is the only system insuring accuracy.

In the preparation of the tables, the effort has been to follow uniform rules so far as possible in the treatment of each report. Notwithstanding this effort, it will doubtless be found that some institutions will suffer injustice by comparison. This work must be regarded as tentative, to be improved upon in future.

It will be observed that there is a great diversity in the expenditures of different institutions, ranging from \$76.91 to \$337.18 per pupil. The expenses of some institutions are double those of others having an equal attendance. The principal differences arise in the items of salaries, clothing, and fuel.

There is a popular impression that the expenses of institutions decrease relatively with the increase of their population. This impression is only partially confirmed by this table. The expenses of the larger institutions do not run very much below the average, while the smallest of all shows a lower average expense than the four largest institutions. Even in the items of salaries and provisions, it will be observed that the three largest institutions do not fall materially below the average. The truth seems to be that there is a limit to the economy of numbers, and this important fact should be made prominent.

Twenty of the twenty-nine institutions show a profit from labor, ranging from \$0.62 to \$47.84 per pupil, the average being \$14.23 per pupil.

Seven institutions show more than \$20 per inmate net profit from labor.

For convenience of comparison, the institutions have been arranged in the order of their population. It would be obviously unfair to compare a school of one hundred pupils with a school of four hundred pupils, in some lines of expense.

Detailed comparisons can easily be made by interested parties, each for himself.*

*The numbers, 1-24, in the first column of the following pages of statistics, refer to the name and location of each institution as given on the first page.

STATISTICS OF THE JUVENILE REFORMATORIES OF THE UNITED STATES.

STATE.	TITLE OF INSTITUTION.	NAME OF SUPERINTENDENT.	POST OFFICE ADDRESS.	UNDER CONTROL OF	NUMBER OF MANAGERS AND HOW APPOINTED.	SUPERINTENDENT AND EMPLOYEES, HOW APPOINTED.
Colorado.....	State Industrial School.....	W. C. Sampson	Golden, Jefferson Co.	State.....	{ 3, nominated by Governor and confirmed by Senate.....	Board of Control.....
Dist. of Columbia.....	Reform School.....	G. A. Shallenberger.....	Washington.....	Incorporated.....	{ 7, by Pres't of U.S., 1 each by Senate & House of Rep'res. va.	Board, annually.....
Connecticut	State Reform School for Boys.....	George E. Howe.....	Mriden.....	{ Private Charity, receiving State Aid.. }	11, appointed by Senate	Board of Managers.....
"	Industrial School for Girls.....	Charles H. Bond.....	Middletown.....	State.....	12, elected by Society	{ Board appoints Sup't, and he the other officers subject to approval. }
Indiana	{ House of Refuge for Wom'n }	Mrs. E. L. Johnson.....	Indianapolis.....	State.....	3, appointed by Governor.....	By Board.....
Iowa	Reform School, Boys	B. J. Miles	Eldora, Hardin Co	State.....	{ 5, elected by Joint Session of Legislature.....	By Board.....
Kansas	State Reform School, Boys	J. F. Buck	North Topeka.....	State.....	{ 5, appointed by Governor and Senate.....	{ Sup't by Board, other officers by Superintendent
Massachusetts	State Industrial School for Girls.....	N. Porter Brown.....	Lancaster	State.....	{ 7 (5 men, 2 women), appointed by the Governor and Council.	By Board annually.....
"	State Primary School.....	Amos Andrews.....	Palmer	State.....	3, appointed by Governor.....	{ Sup't and Physician by Board, Sup't appoints other officers .. }
"	Lyman School for Boys.....	H. E. Swan, Acting Sup't.....	Westboro.....	State.....	5, appointed by Governor.....	{ Sup't by Board, and he appoints other officers .. }
Michigan.....	Reform School, Boys.....	Cornelius A. Gower.....	Lansing	State.....	5, appointed by Governor.....	By Board.....
"	Industrial Home for Girls	Margaret Scott.....	Adrian	State.....	5, appointed by Mayor of St. Louis.....	{ Sup't by Board, others by Sup't .. }
Missouri	House of Refuge.....	John D. Shafer	St. Louis	Municipal, St. Louis.....	7, appointed by Governor and Council.....	By Board.....
New Hampshire.....	State Industrial School.....	J. C. Ray	Manchester.....	State.....	{ 6, Joint Meeting of Senate and Assembly.....	{ Board appoints Sup't, and he the other employees .. }
New Jersey.....	State Reform School, Boys	Ira Otterson.....	Jamesburg, Middlesex Co.....	State.....	24, chosen by Society	By Board.....
New York.....	Juvenile Asylum.....	E. M. Carpenter.....	Station M, N. Y.	Incorporated & Municipal.....	5, appointed by Governor.....	{ Sup't by Board, Sup't appoints other officers..... }
"	House of Refuge.....	Israel C. Jones.....	Station L, N. Y.	Incorp'd { Judicial Dist's of State.	30, chosen by Society	By Board.....
Ohio	Reform School, Boys.....	J. C. Hite.....	Lancaster	State.....	{ 9, by Courts, Common Council, and Contributors.....	{ Sup't by Board for four years, Sup't appoints other officers .. }
"	House of Refuge.....	Henry Oliver	Cincinnati.....	Municipal	31, Contributors, Courts, and Mayor of Philadelphia.....	By Board, annually.....
Pennsylvania	House of Refuge.....	J. Hood Lavery.....	Phila., cor. 23d & Parish Sts.	Incorporated.....	16, appointed by Governor.....	By Board.....
"	Reform School.....	I. A. Quay	Morgana, Washington Co.....	State.....	20, by Society.....	By Board.....
Rhode Island.....	Oaklawn School for Girls.....	Mrs. R. S. Butterworth.....	Milwaukee	Incorporated.....	5, appointed by Governor.....	{ Sup't by Board, Sup't appoints other officers .. }
Wisconsin	Industrial School for Girls.....	Mrs. Mary E. R. Cobb.....	Wautesha	State.....		{ Sup't by Board, and he appoints other officers..... }
"	Industrial School for Boys.....	W. H. Sleep.....				

STATISTICS OF THE JUVENILE REFORMATORIES OF THE UNITED STATES.—CONTINUED.

Acres of Land.	Estimated Value of Property.	Date of Organization.	CAPACITY OF INSTITUTION.			WHOLE NUMBER OF INMATES SINCE OPENING.				AVERAGE NO. LAST YEAR.			Whole No. of Inmates last Report.	Hours for Work.	Hours for Meals and Recreation.	Hours for School.	Hours for Sleep.	Annual cost per inmate except rent.	HOW COMMITTED.	Limit of Age.	Time of Detention.	Do Parents contribute to support?	Is it desirable they should?
			Boys.	Girls.	Total.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.												
20	\$35,000 00	1881	200	200	117	5	122	100	100	73	5½	4	9½	\$185 23	{ By Magistrates or Parents if Board is paid. By Magistrates or sur-rendered by Parents. By Magistrates.....	10 to 16 to 16 to 16 to 16	Expirat'n of Sentence. to 21 to 21 to 21	{ Yes. No. No. No.	Think not. No opinion. Think not. Except they pay all, No.		
350	200,000 00	1870	150	150	1060	1060	153	153	163	4-5	4-5	8-9	200 00	{ By Magistrates or sur-rendered by Parents. By Magistrates.....	to 16 to 16 to 16	to 21 to 21 to 21	{ No. No. No.	No opinion. Think not. Except they pay all, No.		
195	250,000 00	1853	450	450	3812	3112	406	406	407	5½	4	8	132 00	{ By Magistrates or sur-rendered by Parents. By Magistrates.....	to 16 to 16 to 16	to 21 to 21 to 21	{ No. No. No.	Think not. No opinion. Except they pay all, No.		
50	200,000 00	1870	200	200	660	660	200	200	206	7	4	9	172 00	{ By Magistrates or sur-rendered by Parents. By Magistrates.....	8 to 16 to 16 to 16	to 21 to 21 to 21	{ No. No. No.	Think not. No opinion. Except they pay all, No.		
12	200,000 00	1873	200	200	859	859	186	186	192	7	4	3	10	145 52	{ By Magistrates or sur-rendered by Parents. By Magistrates.....	Women over 16, girls under 16 to 16 to 16 to 16	Women for Sentence. Girls to 18 to 21 to 21	{ No. No. No.	Think not. No opinion. Except they pay all, No.	
760	200,000 00	1868	when complete 600	600	1087	1087	282	282	240	4	6	4	10	108 00	{ By Magistrates or sur-rendered by Parents. By Magistrates.....	8 to 16 to 16 to 16	to 21 to 21 to 21	{ No. No. No.	Think not. No opinion. Except they pay all, No.	
160	56,000 00	1881	100	100	215	215	95	95	100	4½	6	9	9	210 00	{ By Magistrates or sur-rendered by Parents. By Magistrates.....	8 to 16 to 16 to 16	to 21 to 21 to 21	{ No. No. No.	Think not. No opinion. Except they pay all, No.	
185	63,000 00	1855	100	100	1287	1287	61	61	71	6½	5	3	9½	243 36	{ By Magistrates or sur-rendered by Parents. By Magistrates.....	7 to 17 to 17 to 17	to 21 to 21 to 21	{ Indirectly, \$100 p'r w'k if able. No. No.	Doubtful.	
247	180,000 00	1866	500	425	398	34	8	2½	10	117 00	{ By Magistrates or sur-rendered by Parents. By Magistrates.....	16 to 16 to 16	to 16 to 16 to 16	{ Yes, if practicable No. No.	Open question. No. No.		
100	49,000 00	1848	100	100	5544	5544	128	128	150	8	4	3	9	231 90	{ By Magistrates or sur-rendered by Parents. By Magistrates.....	7 to 15 to 15 to 15	to 21 to 21 to 21	{ Yes, if practicable No. No.	Open question. No. No.	
251	226,887 63	1856	400	400	3121	8	3129	414	414	440	4½	5½	9½	108 33	{ By Magistrates or sur-rendered by Parents. By Magistrates.....	16 to 16 to 16	to 18 to 18 to 18	{ Yes, if practicable No. No.	Open question. No. No.		
92	145,209 63	1879	200	200	238	238	147	147	157	8	2½	4	9	178 00	{ By Magistrates or sur-rendered by Parents. By Magistrates.....	17 to 17 to 17	to 21 to 21 to 21	{ No. No. No.	Open question. No. No.	
20	200,000 00	1854	300	4013	1002	5015	160	52	212	202	7	3½	10	140 00	{ By Magistrates or sur-rendered by Parents. By Magistrates.....	3 to 16 to 16 to 16	to 21 to 21 to 21	{ Only by special agreement. No. No.	Open question. No. No.		
100	50,000 00	1858	125	1100	200	1300	105	105	4½	5	4	10½	180 00	{ By Magistrates or sur-rendered by Parents. By Magistrates.....	to 17 to 17 to 17	to 21 to 21 to 21	{ Seldom. No. No.	Think not. Yes. Yes.		
490	1865	350	1537	1537	323	323	283	5½	5½	9½-10	145 02	{ By Magistrates or sur-rendered by Parents. By Magistrates.....	8 to 16 to 16 to 16	to 21 to 21 to 21	{ When able. Yes. Yes.	Think not. Yes. Yes.		
20	900,000 00	1862	925	19,945	4236	24,173	745	161	906	873	6½	4½	8-10	120 00	{ By Magistrates or sur-rendered by Parents. By Magistrates.....	7 to 14 to 14 to 14	to 21 to 21 to 21	{ Yes. No. No.	When able Yes. Yes.		
371	535,000 00	1854	750	250	1000	17,865	4090	21,955	656	115	711	758	7-8	3½-4	9-10	159 50	{ By Magistrates or sur-rendered by Parents. By Magistrates.....	to 16 to 16 to 16	to 21 to 21 to 21	{ No. No. No.	When able Yes. Yes.		
1210	300,000 00	1855	600	600	4175	4175	430	430	436	4½	4½	9	145 00	{ By Magistrates or sur-rendered by Parents. By Magistrates.....	10 to 16 to 16 to 16	to 21 to 21 to 21	{ No. No. No.	When able Yes. Yes.		
94	1845	400	5646	1118	6764	239	63	292	295	8½	10	141 66	{ By Magistrates or sur-rendered by Parents. By Magistrates.....	to 16 to 16 to 16	to 21 to 21 to 21	{ No. No. No.	Think not. No. No.		
9	800,000 00	1826	800	11,012	3632	14,644	576	187	763	790	6½	5	3	9½	115 40	{ By Magistrates or sur-rendered by Parents. By Magistrates.....	to 16 to 16 to 16	to 21 to 21 to 21	{ No. No. No.	Think not. No. No.	
503	600,000 00	1854	500	3492	1223	4715	262	81	343	325	5	3½	5½	9½	172 00	{ By Magistrates or sur-rendered by Parents. By Magistrates.....	Under 21 to 21 to 21	to 21 to 21 to 21	{ No. No. No.	Think not. No. No.	
16	75,000 00	1875	185	100	401	501	35	135	170	165	5	6½	4	9½	121 30	{ By Magistrates or sur-rendered by Parents. By Magistrates.....	1 to 16 to 16 to 16	to 18 to 18 to 18	{ Many do. No. No.	Yes. No. No.	
377	265,000 00	1860	500	2168	67	2215	300	300	297	5	6	4½	9½	140 77	{ By Magistrates or sur-rendered by Parents. By Magistrates.....	1 to 16 to 16 to 16	to 18 to 18 to 18	{ Many do. No. No.	Yes. No. No.	

STATISTICS OF THE JUVENILE REFORMATORIES OF THE UNITED STATES.—CONTINUED.

SOURCES OF REVENUE.	Proportion of Earnings to cost of Support	What proportion attended School before commitment.	What proportion had regular employment in what profession had been arrested before commitment.	OCCUPATION OF PARENTS.			Per cent. of inmates when committed.	Per cent. of Parents had criminal records.	Do you teach beyond common school branches?	Do you attempt trades?	WHAT INDUSTRIES ARE PRACTISED.
				Per cent. Agriculturalists.	Per cent. Mechanics.	Per cent. common Laborers.					
State appropriation and earnings.....	About $\frac{1}{10}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	22%	10%	44%	46%	34%	1%	No.	Yes in certain cases.	{ Manufacturing clothing for institution, laundry, and brooms
Earnings and product of farm and garden....	About $\frac{1}{10}$	less than $\frac{1}{10}$	20%	10%	15%	75%	7%	Can't tell.	No.	No.	{ Chair seating and farming
State appropriation and earnings.....	About $\frac{1}{10}$	$\frac{1}{2}$					8%	...	No.	No.	{ Farming, gardening, shoemaking, cane seating, tailoring.....
State appropriation and earnings.....	About $\frac{1}{10}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	5%	10%	16%	68%	33%	60%	No.	No.	{ Housework, sewing, laundry, and paper-box making.....
State appropriation.....	Very small	$\frac{1}{2}$	Very few.				50%	Small.	No.	No.	{ Laundry, cane seating, and tailoring.....
Farm and garden.....	About $\frac{1}{10}$	$\frac{1}{10}$	70%				10%	...	Yes.	Yes.	{ Farming, shoemaking, tailoring, broom-making.....
State appropriation.....	All a little	$\frac{1}{2}$	5%	Scarcely any.		Mostly herding.	Very few.	...	No.	No.	{ Farming and gardening.....
State appropriation.....	Most of them.	None.	10%	None.	20%	80%	2%	...	No.	No.	{ Housework, mainly
State appropriation and product of farm....	$\frac{1}{10}$	$\frac{1}{2}$		3%	45%	62%	12%	20%	No.	No.	{ Institution work
State appropriation and earnings.....	$\frac{1}{10}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	40%	10%	40%	50%	5%	...	No.	Yes.	{ Farming and chair seating.....
State appropriation and earnings.....	None.	Very few.	33%				...	9%	No.	No.	{ Housework and dressmaking.....
{ State appropriation and earnings	$\frac{1}{10}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	10%	12%	8%	80%	12%	...	No.	Yes.	{ Shoemaking, chairmaking, and baking
{ Municipal appropriation, earnings, and }	$\frac{1}{10}$	$\frac{1}{2}$					40%	...	Seldom.	Yes.	{ Chair seating, shoemaking, farming, gardening.....
State appropriation, board money by towns	$\frac{1}{10}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	67%	5%	30%	65%	40%	...	No.	Small No. Limited extent.	{ Shirt manufacturing, brickmaking, and farming.....
Labor and State appropriation.....	$\frac{1}{10}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	5%	1%	40%	59%	10%	3%	No.	No.	{ Shoemaking tailoring, dressmaking, baking, ironing, housework.....
Municipal and donations.....			37%	Very few.	Very few.	Mostly.	60%	4%	No.	No.	{ Knitting, sewing, tailoring, gardening, baking, domestic work.....
{ Labor of inmates, Corporate School }	$\frac{1}{10}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	10%	5%	35%	60%	10%	...	Yes.	Yes.	{ Brickmaking, printing, farming, blacksmithing, carpentering, baking, laundry, shoemaking, brushmaking.....
State appropriation and earnings.....	About $\frac{1}{10}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	25%	2%	60%	32%	25%	...	No.	No.	{ Shoemaking, tailoring, cane seating, iron working.....
Municipal appropriation.....	About $\frac{1}{10}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	25%	20%	30%	50%	25%	...	No.	No.	{ Shoemaking, brushmaking, tailoring, etc.....
{ State and Municipal appropriations, earnings, and legacies.....	About $\frac{1}{10}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	30%				Many under 4 years 60%	50%	To some extent.	No.	{ Housework, sewing, and fancy work.....
State appropriation and earnings.....	$\frac{1}{10}$	None.					60%	...	No.	No.	{ Shoemaking and knitting

STATISTICS OF THE JUVENILE REFORMATORIES OF THE UNITED STATES.—CONTINUED.

WHAT INDUSTRIES HAVE YOU FOUND BEST TO PROMOTE REFORMATION?	METHOD OF EMPLOYMENT.			LIBRARY, CHARACTER OF.	DISPOSITION OF INMATES.		MASTER'S OBLIGATION WHEN INDENTURED.	Average Age when received.	Average time in Institution, months.	ESTIMATED PER CENT. OF REFORMATIONS.
	By Contract?	By Piece?	By Institution?		Indenture.	Discharge.				
{ Those which will afford the means of living when discharged..... }	Yes.	300 volumes miscellaneous.....	No.	By ticket of leave.....	13	21	96.
{ Agriculture and horticulture..... }	Yes.	600 to 600 vols. miscellaneous volumes, not well adapted to inmates }	To friends or parents.....	13½	20	66 and probably more. 80 or more.
{ Housework in all its branches..... }	Yes.	600 volumes.....	No.	Yes.	Wages in addition to care.....	12½	42	67.
{ Laundry..... }	Yes.	Few books.....	Yes.	Yes.	etc.....	12½	30	75.
{ Farming and gardening..... }	Yes.	500 volumes miscellaneous.....	Yes.	Yes.	Care, clothing, etc.....	13	42	75.
{ Farming and gardening..... }	Yes.	125 volumes miscellaneous.....	Yes.	Yes.	Treated as member of family, dur- ing minority, \$200 money.....	14	20	{ 90 Whites; cent. of Colored.
{ Out-door work, under close super- vision..... }	Yes.	1,600 volumes, well select- ed, miscellaneous.....	No.	Released on probation	{ To care for till 18, then \$50 in mon- ey and clothing..... }	15	12	75.
{ }	Yes.	700 volumes suitable for children.....	No.	Placed out.	10½
{ }	1,500 volumes miscellaneous.....	No.	No regular system employed.	14½	12
{ Farming..... }	Yes.	Yes.	3,000 volumes.....	Yes.	Yes.	According to age of boy.....	13½	21	{ No reliable data to form estimate. Can't tell yet.
{ Farming..... }	Yes.	400 volumes miscellaneous.....	Yes.	Yes.	Six months, generally.....	14
{ Domestic work..... }	{ 500 volumes, suitable for such institution..... }	Yes.	Yes.	{ Usual obligation of master to ap- prentice..... }	13	24	70.
{ No choice..... }	Yes.	400 volumes miscellaneous.....	Yes.	Yes.	{ Clothes, board, etc., and money con- sideration..... }	14	21	85.
{ Mechanical..... }	Yes.	500 volumes miscellaneous.....	Yes.	Yes.	{ Clothes, board, etc., and money con- sideration..... }	29	79½.
{ Any systematic employment..... }	Yes.	9,000 volumes miscellaneous.....	Yes.	Yes.	{ Clothes, board till age, schooling, money consideration, \$100..... }	12	18	90.
{ Whatever has variety, without con- fining to one object..... }	2,170 volumes miscellaneous.....	Yes.	Yes.	{ Three years proper care and school- ing, and money consideration..... }	14	14	{ 85 in later years. first fifty years 73 per cent.
{ Any giving regular systematic em- ployment..... }	Yes.	2,100 volumes miscellaneous.....	Yes.	Yes.	{ Usual care, 21, two suits, Family Bible, \$125..... }	14	19	80.
{ Printing and farming..... }	Yes.	1,000 volumes miscellaneous.....	Yes.	Yes.	{ To 18 years of age, schooling, care, etc., and \$60 in money..... }	12	15	80.
{ No choice, all are helpful..... }	800 volumes miscellaneous.....	Yes.	Yes.	{ To 18 years of age, schooling, care, etc., and \$60 in money..... }	13	24	75 to 80.
{ }	600 volumes miscellaneous.....	Yes.	On parole.	13 to 15	27	85.
{ }	500 volumes juvenile books.....	Yes.	On parole.	{ School, good treatment, and \$100 } money.....	10½	17	90.
{ No choice..... }	Yes.	1,060 volumes.....	Yes.	Yes.	Parental care and control.....	12½	36	75 to 85.

NOTE. — Statistics from the following Reformatories are not included: State Reform School, Illinois, Dr. J. D. Sconler; House of Refuge, Kentucky, P. Caldwell; State Reform School, Maine, J. R. Farrington; House of Refuge, Maryland, Robert J. Kirkwood; House of Reformation for Colored Children, Maryland, John Horn; St. Mary's Industrial School, Maryland, Brother Alexis; Plumber Farm School, Massachusetts, J. W. Plumber; House of Reformation for Girls, Rhode Island, Mrs. E. S. Butterworth; Stockman School for Boys, Howard, Rhode Island, Joseph H. Eastman; Reform School, Vermont, W. G. Fairbank.

SALARIES IN REFORMATORIES.

BY H. H. HART.

This table embraces twenty institutions. The totals are the same as those in the column of "Salaries and Wages" in the accompanying general statement of expenses. The materials for this sub-classification are found in the rosters of employes given in the printed reports of the institutions. While not strictly accurate, they are sufficiently so. When the roster does not cover all temporary and miscellaneous labor, it is entered as miscellaneous.

For convenience of comparison, the actual number of regular employes is given for each institution, together with the number, at the same rate, for an institution of one hundred inmates.

This classification is, of course, somewhat imperfect. The superintendent's salary sometimes includes the matron's. It is difficult to determine, sometimes, whether a man in charge of a cottage shall be classed as an assistant superintendent or an overseer; but the work is reasonably uniform.

In the case of four institutions,—the Reform Schools of Michigan, Minnesota, and Wisconsin, and the Newark City Home, of New Jersey,—this table does not include all employes, the wages of a part being charged to shop account, or other accounts. The same is probably true in some other cases. These employes are regarded as earning their way, and their wages are deducted from the earnings of the shops.

COMPARATIVE CLASSIFIED STATEMENT OF ONE YEAR'S CURRENT EXPENSES PER PUPIL OF CHILDREN'S REFORMATORY INSTITUTIONS IN THE UNITED STATES.

STATE.	LOCATION.	NAME OF INSTITUTION.	Average No. Pupils.	Salaries and Wages.	Groceries and Provisions.	Clothing.	Fuel and Light.	Medical.	Furniture &c.	Additions Repairs, Impr'v'ts	Farm, Grounds, Live St'k	Miscellaneous.	Total Current Expense per Pupil.	Net Profit Labor.	Net Current Expense per Pupil.
Alabama	Cranston	Oaklawn School for Girls	39	\$38 45	\$40 15	\$10 26	\$12 04	\$ 22	\$6 42	\$1 54	\$18 38	\$4 97	\$114 05	\$114 05
Alabama	Lancaster	Industrial School for Girls	61	111 90	51 81	25 51	17 35	2 63	8 81	14 33	13 71	253 43	262 81
California	San Francisco	Industrial School	80.5	165 44	93 42	21 36	16 39	1 66	1 16	13 06	12 88	12 88	337 18	337 18
Connecticut	Vergennes	Vermont Reform School	82	61 11	36 67	12 20	15 91	1 00	4 20	13 76	17 13	17 58	170 18	47 84	123 34
Illinois	Topeka	State Reform School	95	67 32	39 36	25 21	11 60	2 90	3 48	12 90	10 68	12 04	210 52	210 52
Indiana	Cape Elizabeth	State Reform School	97	59 83	42 07	25 24	10 66	2 68	7 34	10 25	16 48	12 04	159 71	7 56	170 00
Iowa	Golden	State Industrial School	128	76 13	64 52	20 12	40 38	1 98	11 32	1 41	18 78	5 00	222 04	222 04
Minnesota	St. Paul	State Reform School	138.8	114 67	44 61	16 61	9 16	1 89	4 69	6 14	9 14	6 88	213 05	20 81	233 86
Massachusetts	Weymouth	State Reform School	147	65 15	34 93	24 24	19 92	4 17	3 39	12 43	3 60	6 79	174 70	174 70
Michigan	Marion	Industrial School for Girls	147	36 80	36 36	11 48	16 57	8 63	2 85	1 02	3 37	8 79	118 88	7 23	117 65
Mississippi	Milwaukee	Industrial School for Girls	160	33 22	37 05	11 89	8 63	2 23	2 85	8 73	13 28	2 82	118 76	14 40	104 36
Missouri	Newark	Industrial School for Boys	171	56 74	55 36	17 55	23 61	4 48	5 61	5 25	9 77	3 95	178 32	9 43	168 89
Nebraska	Indianapolis	Reformatory for Women and Girls	186	38 71	37 45	13 46	12 19	3 78	7 83	20 82	5 15	6 14	145 53	4 44	141 09
Nebraska	Toledo	House of Refuge	187	60 70	55 46	12 71	7 36	2 51	4 47	3 39	1 50	9 74	111 40	111 40
Nebraska	Pontiac	House of Refuge	221	62 16	55 42	10 04	10 11	1 82	5 74	12 60	4 58	3 98	162 62	23 77	138 85
Nebraska	St. Louis	State Reform School	229.75	33 60	41 71	32 19	13 56	1 10	4 75	10 52	5 04	14 45	157 82	17 41	138 89
Nebraska	Baltimore	House of Refuge	273	59 88	49 61	13 21	17 33	2 98	14 58	3 80	3 14	16 13	180 66	180 66
Nebraska	Delaware	Girls' Industrial Home	279	32 67	31 87	6 75	4 89	2 33	4 63	97	1 27	5 14	90 20	13 29	76 91
Nebraska	Louisville	House of Refuge	279	46 05	55 86	18 31	18 72	1 28	1 95	5 72	2 28	7 71	155 88	21 82	134 06
Nebraska	Waukegan	House of Refuge	302	38 93	47 90	18 22	14 40	2 22	5 89	9 10	1 74	10 40	148 80	6 65	142 15
Nebraska	Cincinnati	House of Refuge	342	58 00	64 50	19 58	14 21	2 01	7 08	11 18	1 61	10 86	189 03	22 46	166 57
Nebraska	Moxana	State Reform School	384	36 38	34 34	14 21	14 57	1 34	1 58	9 52	9 18	11 30	132 42	22 83	109 59
Nebraska	Lansing	State Reform School	395	21 07	32 97	14 56	6 75	9 77	18 61	103 73	103 73
Nebraska	Painfield	State Reform School	410	40 02	39 23	17 52	15 73	1 22	3 06	14 88	1 42	12 54	145 62	16 62	129 00
Nebraska	Meriden	State Reform School	430	49 23	53 20	12 44	12 20	1 25	4 64	2 37	1 89	9 78	147 00	13 98	133 02
Nebraska	Lancaster	State Reform School	763	50 54	42 77	11 52	9 07	1 33	4 73	3 33	1 16	6 54	130 59	3 89	127 00
Nebraska	Philadelphia	House of Refuge	771.8	53 80	54 10	16 05	12 26	2 4	5 75	6 80	97	7 13	157 10	39 76	117 34
Nebraska	Randall's Island, New York	House of Refuge
Average of 29 Institutions....			249	\$49 39	\$46 77	\$15 50	\$13 04	\$1 36	\$5 19	\$7 56	\$3 79	\$10 03	\$152 63	\$14 23	\$138 40

COMPARATIVE CLASSIFIED STATEMENT OF EXPENDITURE FOR SALARIES AND WAGES PER PUPIL IN CHILDREN'S REFORMATORY INSTITUTIONS IN THE UNITED STATES.

STATE.	LOCATION.	NAME OF INSTITUTION.	Average num-ber Pupils.	Number of Regular Employees.	Number of Employees per 100 Pupils.	Total Salaries per and Pupil.	Superintend-ents.	Asst. Superin-tendents.	Clerks and Book-keepers.	Teachers.	Matrons and Assist. House-keepers.	Overseers, Watchmen, Foremen, Officers, Engineers and Firemen.	Farmers and Laborers.	Cooks and Bakers.	Female Help	Temporary and Mis-cellaneous.	REMARKS.
Massachusetts.	Lawrence.	Lawrence Industrial School	37	5	13.5	\$65.51	\$29.73	\$9.73	\$8.11	\$5.62	\$12.32	{ Carpenter, gardener, finisher, and two foremen not included,—charged to shops and greenhouse accounts, about \$3,300.
Rhode Island.	Cranston.	Oaklawn School for Girls.	39	4	10.3	38.45	15.38	17.69	23.79	\$6.46	{ Foreman, farmer, and shop assistant not included, \$900.
Massachusetts.	Lancaster.	Industrial School for Girls.	61	14	23	111.90	21.31	5.74	17.36	23.79	\$10.57	{ Manager and four overseers of shops not included,—charged to shop account, \$5,284.26.
Connecticut.	Vergennes.	State Reform School.	82	14	17.1	61.71	14.63	7.93	9.15	\$2.44	{ 4 shopkeepers not included—charged to shop account, \$2,680.
New Hampshire.	Manchester.	State Industrial School.	105	13	12.4	48.40	11.43	5.00	7.30	7.70	2.81	{ Of 69 employees, 35 non-residents board themselves.
Colorado.	Golden.	State Industrial School.	120.2	12	10	69.03	9.89	11.48	3.50	
Minnesota.	Saint Paul.	State Reform School.	128	17	13.3	75.13	11.73	7.81	7.81	11.57	7.03	6.56	\$7.03	2.34	7.03	4.68	
Massachusetts.	Westborough.	State Reform School.	128.8	37	28.7	114.67	12.42	19.00	2.47	11.22	7.13	15.51	5.78	22.03	8.57	3.91	
Michigan.	Adrian.	Industrial School for Girls.	147	25	17	65.15	6.80	2.72	6.80	18.20	3.26	12.63	8.95	5.79	
New Jersey.	Newark.	Newark City Home.	168.5	15	8.9	33.22	10.69	3.56	4.27	2.37	1.43	2.85	1.43	2.85	3.77	
Rhode Island.	Cranston.	{ Sockanosset School for Boys { Reformatory for Women and Girls.	171	25	14.6	56.74	13.45	9.68	66	4.44	3.43	7.27	3.51	4.64	4.32	5.34	
Indiana.	Indianapolis.	Girls' Industrial Home.	186	15	8.1	38.71	4.30	3.22	2.15	3.87	5.49	8.39	4.52	3.22	
Ohio.	Delaware.	Industrial School for Boys.	273	35	12.8	59.88	4.38	1.47	2.96	6.05	16.11	1.86	2.20	9.37	1.98	
Wisconsin.	Wauchesa.	Industrial School for Boys.	300	39	13	45.05	5.33	4.00	1.60	9.13	4.32	2.40	1.60	11.60	3.47	1.76	
Ohio.	Cincinnati.	House of Refuge.	302	25	8.3	38.93	4.98	3.32	1.14	3.52	10.51	2.90	1.69	7.52	1.26	1.78	
New Jersey.	Jerseyburg.	State Reform School.	323.5	24	7.4	45.93	7.73	1.86	2.41	5.19	2.60	12.06	1.86	1.86	1.48	8.33	
Pennsylvania.	Morgantown.	State Reform School.	342	42	12.3	58.00	5.26	4.68	1.46	9.21	4.53	10.76	5.12	6.81	3.98	2.19	
Michigan.	Lansing.	State Reform School.	384	32	8.3	36.38	5.21	2.87	1.82	8.20	7.9	4.07	1.30	5.61	2.16	4.13	
Ohio.	Lancaster.	State Reform School.	430	51	11.9	49.23	2.79	11.86	2.79	4.77	1.62	6.84	3.30	8.32	2.50	1.38	
Pennsylvania.	Philadelphia.	House of Refuge.	763	69	9.4	50.54	3.83	3.54	3.80	6.72	3.08	13.72	3.30	3.29	2.39	3.58	
		Average of 20 Institutions	225	11.4	\$62.26	\$6.77	\$4.74	\$2.29	\$6.94	\$5.00	\$7.63	\$3.00	\$6.12	\$2.41	\$3.27	\$3.40

XI.

The Prevention of Pauperism.

REPORT OF THE STANDING COMMITTEE.

SIGNED BY F. B. SANBORN, O. H. YOUNG, AND R. BRINKERHOFF.

There is an implied promise held out to us in the title of our committee, which, it is to be regretted, the experience of years has not justified. To prevent pauperism, in the strict sense of the words, — that is, to remove from society that condition of living and that habit of mind among the poor which make them paupers, — is impossible. "Ye have the poor with you always," and even that form of poverty stigmatized as pauperism seems too deeply rooted in our present civilization to be wholly removed from any large community. Generally speaking, as civilization advances, density of population increases; and with a dense population comes an increase of pauperism, in spite of all preventive measures that we can employ. What our subject must signify, therefore, is the checking and reduction of pauperism, — a comparative prevention, and not an absolute one. In that view of the case, let us ask a few questions.

Have we any definite knowledge whether pauperism in the United States is or is not checked since the Civil War, for example?

We know, in a general way that the war, for the time being, checked pauperism, and then indirectly increased it; but how is it now as compared with this time twenty years ago, when the Civil War was just ended?

We apprehend that there is no exact statistical collection of facts at the two dates — 1865 and 1885 — which will enable us to say positively, on that evidence, that the "craving poor," as Defoe called them two centuries ago, are any more or any less than they were in 1865 throughout the whole country, as compared with the whole population of the country. We have reason to believe that during this interval of twenty years there have sometimes been many more

paupers and tramps than now, as, for example, in the long-continued financial depression from 1874 to 1878; and we also believe that there have been less than they now are in number. But our census enumerations for the whole country are either so inexact, or so imperfectly tabulated, or so infrequently taken, that it is not possible to fortify that belief with any very precise array of numbers, unless we resort to the reports from particular States, in which the count of paupers and population is so often made that comparisons between one date and another are practicable. There are a few such States; and some of them will take the census this year, after which it will be not easy, but possible, to present the desired calculation.

Assuming that we either have now or can soon get the accurate statistical knowledge desired, can we also say with any precision what causes have increased pauperism, if we find it increasing, or have checked it, if we find it diminishing? Here, too, it is to be feared, the answer will be negative. Many alleged causes present themselves—of which some persons will accept one, and others another, as a main cause of the ascertained result; and it will be difficult to secure a general agreement as to what any main cause is. If, then, we either do not know what the facts are or are in doubt as to the causes of ascertained facts, how can we reach definite conclusions?

The answer is that we cannot, except by recurring to the evidence of personal experience and to those general principles and maxims concerning pauperism which the experience of centuries has shown to be sound. Reasoning upon these, we may be sure that, wherever intemperance in the use of ardent spirits is increasing, pauperism must increase, although it is true that in many communities, especially rural ones, there may be much intemperance without much public pauperism in the first two or three generations. Such has been the case in many of the newer States of our country. But, when intemperance as a fixed habit has had time enough to accomplish its results on the posterity of drunkards, we then find a lamentable increase in those forms of pauperism that proceed from idiocy, insanity, epilepsy, and that long train of physical tendencies and diseases which springs from the abuse of drink. In cities and other densely peopled places, these evils produce direct moral effects, which increase pauperism by stimulating many forms of crime; for there is a very close connection between crime and vice and that fertile seed-bed of both, which pauperism is wont to be.

Whoever would check pauperism, therefore,—much more prevent

it,—must prevent or check intemperance; and this means, to diminish the open and excessive opportunity for the sale of intoxicants, which is now the curse of the United States, as it has long been the curse of Great Britain and other European countries. All friends of the poor must view with alarm the political influence which the sellers of liquor and the promoters of gambling and other vices have acquired in too many of our cities and States; for this can have no other result than to increase poverty, insanity, and crime,—evils which grow out of intemperance and its kindred vices as naturally as mushrooms and weeds spring from a dunghill in the heat of summer. It is scarcely possible for frugality to exist among the poor where drunkenness and gambling are prevalent; and, without frugality, honest poverty is continually sinking into pauperism. It is impossible to train the children of the poor to respectable lives where drunkenness and gambling prevail, and it is from children gone astray that the ranks of criminals and paupers are daily recruited. Temperance and morality, then, are the greatest preventives of pauperism, and should be everywhere inculcated for this reason, as well as for their inestimable benefits to the individual.

The particular method of furnishing relief to the poor is often mentioned as having a great influence in checking or promoting pauperism; and, doubtless, this is true, although the worst method of relieving poverty can hardly be so effective to increase pauperism as is the most guarded method of legalizing the sale of intoxicants. Yet we must apply the remedy here also; and, if we find that there is an abuse, either of in-door or out-door relief, we must see that the abuse is corrected. Let it not be forgotten, however, that the business of the public relieving officer is to relieve, that an almoner is appointed not to withhold alms, but to distribute it,—always, of course, to those who really need it. The extent of pauperism in any community is by no means to be measured exactly by what the public officials dole out to the poor: it does not necessarily decrease as that gift diminishes, nor increase as that is augmented. In those countries of Europe and in those States of this country where pauperism has manifestly been checked of late years, the expenditure of money has not correspondingly been lessened, but has even increased, the fact being that a liberal outlay of money judiciously expended checks pauperism faster than an unwise parsimony. It is by the ultimate condition of the poor, after a series of years, that the effect of any charitable policy must be judged; and it will commonly be found that wealthy States and cities cannot be prevented from expending large

sums in public or private charity. The question, then, is how those expenses shall be applied, what system shall be initiated and continued, what classification of the poor shall be adopted, and what ultimate result shall be kept in view.

To these questions, your committee can only suggest general answers, leaving it for the Conference, in its debate on this and other reports, to apply these generalities to special classes and individual instances.

1. All charitable expenses in any State should be annually reported, whether the charity be public or private, and the amount and general distribution of the sums thus expended should be carefully set down, and communicated to the public as far and as fully as this can be done. The yearly reports of boards of public charities furnish a good vehicle for this information; and, where there are no such boards in any State, the reports made to this Conference from year to year might well include statistics of this sort, condensed and briefly explained.

2. Upon such information should be based in each State, and, if possible, in each city and large town, a close affiliation and co-operation of the public and private charities, including in the former those measures for restraining and punishing the vicious and vagrant poor which are proper parts of any good system of public almsgiving. The charity of benevolent citizens would thus be relieved from one of its worst burdens and hindrances, while the public funds would be less heavily drawn upon. This has already been partially accomplished by the organizations known as Union Relief Societies, Associated Charities, etc.; and the results, though still incomplete, are everywhere satisfactory, we believe, so far as they have gone.

3. In the strictly public almsgiving, there should be as early and as completely as possible a removal of all political influences, so that the relief and restraint of the poor shall in no way be affected by our annual or biennial elections of public officers. To do this requires an extension of those principles known in common parlance as the civil service reform into this branch of the public service, and a maintenance in full vigor of these principles against the insidious attacks which political partisans would constantly be making upon them. The admixture of politics with public charity is the great evil of our American system, and is more dangerous here, from the form of our national institutions, than in most other countries.

4. Concurrent with this union of public and private charity in

the separate States should go, as far and as fast as practicable, similarity of legislation and of administration in the different States of our Union, particularly in those which are neighbors and in daily intercommunication across their borders. Without such concurrent legislation and the upright and harmonious dealing of one State with another, the excellent system of one State may be neutralized by the lack of system in another, or may increase in other States the evils which have been banished from its own borders. Tramp laws, for example, if judiciously framed and strictly enforced in New York, may fill Vermont and Connecticut, or Pennsylvania and Ohio, with vagrants who have fled from the wrath to come in New York by the simple expedient of crossing the imaginary line that divides one State from another.

5. The national government should co-operate in such measures by maintaining at all the ports of entry, and throughout the country, a strict supervision over immigrants arriving in the United States, from whom should be exacted a small capitation tax (as now by the Act of 1882) to meet the cost of supporting those who would soon become paupers, and of removing them from that part of the United States where they happen to become paupers to some other place, within or outside of the country, where they properly belong.

These recommendations might be extended, but are already, in the opinion of your committee, sufficient to occupy the attention of the Conference at the present time.

XII.

Immigration.

REPORT OF THE STANDING COMMITTEE.

BY DR. CHARLES S. HOYT, CHAIRMAN,

ALBANY, N.Y.

According to the reports of the Secretary of the Treasury, the number of immigrants arriving in the United States during the decade ending Dec. 31, 1884, was 3,958,704, or an annual average of 395,870. The largest arrivals during this period were in the last five years of the decade, in which the number ^{raised} reached 3,075,759, or a yearly average of 615,150. The arrivals during the calendar year 1884 were 461,346, as follows: at New York, 322,781; at Boston, 31,491; at Baltimore, 30,470; at Detroit, 22,594; at Huron, 20,418; at Philadelphia, 19,064; at New Orleans, 2,954; at Key West, 1,972; at Portland and Falmouth, 1,539; at San Francisco, 1,528; at Passamaquoddy, 1,499; at Galveston, 962; at Minnesota, 924; at Buffalo Creek, 842; at New Bedford, 503; at Superior, 501; at all other districts, 1,034. The countries whence these immigrants came were the following: from Germany, 155,529; from Ireland, 58,589; from England and Wales, 54,281; from the Dominion of Canada, 47,706; from Sweden, 24,017; from Russia, 15,192; from Poland, 4,369; from Italy, 14,441; from Norway, 13,906; from Austria, 13,103; from Hungary, 10,708; from Bohemia, 7,585; from Scotland, 8,791; from Switzerland, 8,215; from Denmark, 7,633; from Netherlands, 3,731; from all other countries, 13,550.

The annual accessions to our population by immigration of so large numbers of aliens of various nationalities, languages, and customs, so affect the material and social interests of the country as to render the subject a proper one for the consideration of this Conference. It is not proposed in this report to discuss the question of immigration at length, but to examine briefly the statutes governing

the matter, with the view of determining whether or not the country is protected, under existing regulations and practices, against the influx of convicts, insane, imbecile, and otherwise infirm and helpless aliens, constantly being shipped by various agencies to our shores. The importance of the subject, it is believed, is not generally appreciated, especially outside of the seaboard States; and, if its examination shall excite discussion and lead to its better understanding, the objects of this report will be accomplished.

In the early history of the country, and until quite recently, the questions affecting immigration were left wholly to the States, the federal government interfering only in so far as to protect immigrants in their transit. To meet the expenses attending their landing, and to provide for those who might become sick or disabled during the voyage, New York, Massachusetts, and other States having ports of entry, established Commissions or Boards of Emigration, and through them imposed and collected a tax, in the form of "head money," on all immigrants landing at their ports. Under the decision of the United States Supreme Court, in 1875, the authority thus exercised by the States in imposing "head money" tax on immigrants was declared unconstitutional; and the expenses in connection with immigration, for the time being, fell wholly upon the States interested, being met by direct taxation. This condition continued until 1882, when the matter was taken up by Congress; and, since then, immigration has been regulated and controlled entirely by federal enactment.

The Act of Congress regulating immigration, passed Aug. 3, 1882, provides for a tax of fifty cents each on all foreign passengers, to be levied on and paid to the collector of the port at which they shall land, by the vessels bringing them to the United States. The Act authorizes the Secretary of the Treasury to enter into contract with such board, commission, or officer, as may be designated by the governor of any State, to take charge of the local affairs of immigration in the ports of such States, and to provide for the support and relief of such immigrants landing therein as may fall into distress or need public aid, to be reimbursed by the collector of the port out of the fund derived from such tax. It is made the duty of such board, commission, or officer, to examine and inquire into the condition of all passengers arriving at such ports; and if, on such examination and inquiry, there shall be found any convict, lunatic, idiot, or any person unable to care for himself or herself, and who is likely to become a public charge, the same shall be reported in writing to the

collector of such port, and such person shall not be permitted to land, and the expense of his or her return shall be borne by the vessel in which he or she came. Under this Act, the Secretary of the Treasury, soon after its passage, entered into contract with the Commissioners of Emigration of New York, with the Boards of Charities of Massachusetts and Pennsylvania, and with various local boards, commissions, and officers of other States; and the examinations, inquiries, landing, relief, and care of all immigrants arriving in the United States, since then, have devolved upon such local officers, commissions, and boards.

It was the evident intention of Congress, by this enactment, to secure ample and proper protection to immigrants arriving at our shores, and at the same time guard against the influx to the country of convicts, lunatic and otherwise infirm and chronic alien paupers, in the event of attempts to land them at our ports. The law as at present executed, however, is little or no barrier against the shipment of these classes; and there is no remedy after they shall have passed the port at which they may have landed. The expenditure of a small sum for passage to any interior point generally insures the delivery of the person to the place of destination; and, though he be insane, or otherwise incapable of self-support, there is no provision made for his return, and he falls upon the locality where he may be as a public charge through life. The statistics of our prisons, penitentiaries, poorhouses, asylums, and other institutions, show that there are proportionately many more of the criminal, insane, pauper, and helpless alien classes in them than in former years; and the evils from these sources, apparently, are constantly and heavily increasing.

These evils, it is believed, are due largely to defects in the federal law, in that its execution depends upon local officers, likely to be influenced, more or less, by local considerations; in the generally hurried and superficial examination of immigrants at the time of their landing; in the absence of any reciprocal action between the officers of the various ports; and in the failure of the statute to prescribe any penalty for its violation. To remedy these evils, the execution of the law should be placed in the hands of federal officers, untrammelled by local influences, and free to act in the interest of the entire country; the examinations should be thorough and vigilant, and the capacity of each immigrant for self-support be conclusively established before he is permitted to land; the procedure at the various ports, so far as practicable, should be

uniform and reciprocal; and violations of the statute in bringing criminals, insane, and other helpless persons to the country should subject the owners of the vessels implicated to a fine in each case, in the nature of a libel on the vessel, to be enforced in the proper courts. An additional protection might also be secured through examinations by our consuls and commercial agents abroad, and the issue of certificates against the immigrants being criminals, lunatics, or chronic paupers, to be transmitted to the authorities of the ports at which they were to land. This could be readily carried out at only slight expense, and such examinations and certifications would in no wise bar or impede legitimate emigration to the country. These conditions should not be enforced against persons forming a part of a productive family; nor should the right of such family to emigrate with its defective member, or members, be in any way questioned or impaired.

The importation of foreign and alien laborers to this country by corporations, companies, and individuals, has heretofore been carried on to considerable extent, but is now prohibited by Act of Congress, at its last session. This Act, approved Feb. 26, 1885, makes it unlawful for any person, company, partnership, or corporation to prepay the transportation, or in any way assist or encourage the importation or migration of any alien or aliens, any foreigner or foreigners, into the United States, its Territories, or the District of Columbia, under contract or agreement, parol or special, express or implied, made previous to the importation or migration of such alien or aliens, foreigner or foreigners, to perform labor or service of any kind in the United States, its Territories, or the District of Columbia. It makes it a misdemeanor, punishable by fine and imprisonment of the master of any vessel who shall knowingly bring any such person or persons, and land them in the United States, and imposes a penalty of \$1,000 upon the person, company, or corporation assisting or encouraging such importation, to be prosecuted for by the district attorney of the proper district, and to be paid into the treasury of the United States. The Act does not apply to skilled laborers, in case the labor cannot otherwise be obtained, or to individuals assisting relatives or personal friends to migrate from any foreign country to the United States for the purpose of settlement.

The evils of these alien and foreign importations in former years are clearly apparent to those who have studied and are familiar with the subject. Such importations tend to derange and depreciate labor, and thus work great and lasting wrong to our permanent

working population. The strong, robust, industrious, and frugal, when their work is completed, generally return to the countries whence they were brought; while the criminal, disabled, and indolent classes remain, to burden our penal and charitable institutions through life, or swell the ranks of tramps and worthless vagabonds, to infest and prey upon society. We make no objection to laborers from abroad, if they come to us of their own accord; but it is clearly our duty to protect the country and its institutions against the inroads of imported serfdom, with its inherent hereditary and cumulative evils.

Whatever legislation may be had by Congress in respect to immigration, or against the importation of criminals, lunatics, or other disabled persons to this country, it seems important that the greatest publicity should be given to it in all the countries whence such emigration or importations come. Impressed with this view, the New York State Board of Charities last year addressed the Department of State upon the subject, setting forth the frequency and evils of such importations, and suggesting that the text of the Act of Congress of 1882, prohibiting the landing of such persons, be promulgated in all the ports and places in the countries of Europe where our own government had resident consuls or commercial agents. Under the date of Dec. 26, 1884, a circular was issued by the late Secretary Frelinghuysen to such consuls and agents, with instructions to give publicity to the Act of Congress of 1882, in the countries and ports to which they were severally accredited, or at which they were recognized, and to bring the matter to the notice of the public authorities of such countries. In answer to a communication upon the subject, Secretary Bayard, under date of April 23, 1885, informed the board that "the action of Austria and Hungary on the information was peculiarly prompt and thorough, it having been ordered that all immigrants to the United States must first furnish certificates that they are provided with sufficient means for self-support." It appears, however, that no response to the communication of Secretary Frelinghuysen had been received from the other governments of Europe, whence most of the immigrants come to this country; and we cannot, therefore, at present, look for much, if any, abatement of the evils to which we have referred.

We close this report by citing statistics relating to the insane and pauperism, which have an important bearing upon the subject under consideration.

By the federal census of 1880, the population of the United States was as follows: Native born, 43,475,840; foreign born,

6,679,943; total, 50,155,783. The number of insane of native birth was 65,654, or 1 to every 662 of the native population; while the number of insane of foreign birth was 26,346, or 1 to every 254 of the foreign population. According to the same census, the native population of New York was 3,871,492, and the foreign population 1,211,379; total, 5,082,871. The number of insane of native birth was 7,790, or 1 to every 497 of the native population; while the number of insane of foreign birth was 6,321, or 1 to every 192 of the foreign population.

According to the reports of the superintendents of the poor and other proper officers to the New York State Board of Charities, there were 56,057 paupers in the poorhouses and almshouses of that State during the year 1880, of whom 21,745 were native, and 34,312 foreign born, the proportion being 1 native pauper to every 176 of the native population, and 1 foreign pauper to every 35 of the foreign population. We have not been able to extend the inquiry to the inmates of prisons, penitentiaries, and reformatories, but believe that the disparity in these, as respects nativity, would be as great as in the cases here cited.

While it is probable that there may be some increase in the proportional number of insane and other dependants in the foreign population, induced by climatic changes and the hardships arising from immigration, the great disparity in these respects, compared with proportion of insane and other dependants in the native population, cannot be wholly satisfactorily accounted for from these causes. We are forced to the conclusion, therefore, that this country is being constantly burdened with the insane and paupers of different European countries, or with persons from those countries so enfeebled by privations and hardships through successive generations as to become insane or otherwise dependent under slight exciting cause, deported from their homes for no other purpose than to relieve their several communities of troublesome burdens, and for whose support and care we are no more liable than for the payment of the national debts or the maintenance of the standing armies of the various countries from whence they are sent. It is as much our duty to protect the country against the encroachment of these classes—due to the vigorous and productive immigrant as well as to the native population—as it is to provide for the legitimate objects of our charity; and we shall act the part of wisdom, if we meet the evils referred to, already expensive and burdensome, before they shall assume the proportions of a national calamity, without the means of redress.

XIII.

Crime.

AN ADDRESS.

BY JULIAN HAWTHORNE.

This grim topic still claims precedence over all others, whether personal or general. It is at once the most catholic and the most individual of human attributes. It confronts us alike in crowded cities and on lonely prairies, in peaceful villages and on stormy oceans; and, when we seek the privacy of our chamber, it passes with us across the threshold. Its beginning was in the earliest dawn of history, and he were a bold optimist who should foretell the day of its departure. It was a mystery from the first; and, after so many thousand years of experience and analysis, we still ask ourselves what it is, and why. It is the darkest and the hardest growth that has ever sprouted from the human heart. All the nostrums of the moral pharmacopœia have been tried upon it, but with scarce an abatement of its sinister luxuriance. No other phenomenon is so bewildering in its manifestations. Civilizations have been based upon it, and it has destroyed civilizations. We call it the child of ignorance, but many of the most highly trained and gifted minds have been steeped in this sable vat of crime. And here to-day, in the capital city of the foremost people of the most enlightened age of the world, crime is as much at home as ever among the squalid huts of our remotest ancestors, and probably much more so. Paganism suckled it, but Christianity has slain for it the fatted calf. It is the fashion to speak of "the criminal classes"; but who are its members, and who are not? The man who is indicted for murder finds few to envy him; but woe to that brother of his in fine linen and good repute, who has dared to say, "I am holier than thou"!

What shall prevail against this common and audacious enemy, this intimate and secret companion? Society is arrayed against

it, but the pillars of society are honey-combed with it. Philanthropy pursues it, but it follows in the footsteps of philanthropy. Philosophy exposes it, but it has a philosophy of its own. Preachers denounce it, but the preacher is the text of his own sermon. The Bible, both in the old and revised version, is widely sold, and perhaps widely read; but the decalogue enumerates our deeds oftener than our abstinences. Morality is excellent, but the worst devil is clothed in morality as in a garment. The force of character is incalculable, yet he who presumes upon it is lost. What is innocence? It is evil unawakened. What is virtue? It is a year of self-denial paid in the hope of an eternity of self-enjoyment. What is goodness? Who can tell? God only is good. Most bewildering of all, but truest of all, the helpless sinner is often nearer to mercy than the self-sufficient saint; for the former knows his own unworthiness, but the latter confides in his own merit. Is evil, then, the deepest thing in man, and therefore ineradicable? There is only one deeper depth, and only man's Creator can occupy it. From him alone, therefore, may succor be expected. But shall man, then, do nothing? Yes; but his aid must be negative, not positive. He must cease to do evil,—that is the sum of the demand and of the possibility. For, though man can do evil, he cannot do good: God can accomplish good through him; but, if man assumes the merit of that accomplishment, he is guilty of spiritual theft from his Creator, and undoes more than he has done.

It may assist our conception of the manner in which crime should be treated to attempt some investigation of its nature and of its necessity in the creative scheme. We shall then be better able to criticise the attitude assumed toward it by modern civilized society, and to inquire whether any modification of that attitude be desirable. Let us bear in mind, however, that crime, strictly speaking, is but one of the two forms which evil assumes in action. Vice is the harm a man does to himself: crime is the harm he does to his fellow-man. The latter is the logical offspring of the former; for indulgence of one's self cannot be carried far, save at the expense of others. But vice and crime, also, are of course only evil, or even conceivable, contingently upon the circumstances in which man is placed. Suppose, for example, that, instead of mankind, there were only man,—a single homogeneous being, the sole offspring of the creative power. Such a being, as an abstract conception, is entirely possible; but he would be impotent to practise either vice or crime. Having no fellow-being to love, self-love, as the only alternative, would cease to

incur any moral stigma. And, again, in the absence of any fellow-being to thwart or limit his enjoyments, crime would be unthinkable and impracticable. Why, then, with so simple a way open to him to prevent evil, did the all-wise and all-loving Creator, by multiplying man into men, deliberately bring about that state of things which is most hostile to his injunctions and ultimate purposes?

The answer to this question leads us directly to a perception of the office of evil in human evolution. Such a being as we have imagined, whatever else he were, would not be a man. He would have no means of rising above his first abject creatureship,—“earth without form and void,” as Genesis figures it. Incapable of evil, he would also be forever incapable of good: his state would be one of unconscious animal innocence. Ignorant of the void that was in himself, he could never comprehend or crave the spiritual quickening of a higher life. Never feeling the need of such relief as only God can give, he would never suspect God's existence. Never deteriorating, never improving, never hating nor loving, never sorrowing nor rejoicing, and never changing, a silent, solitary, and vacant immortality would be his,—an eternity unsunned by heaven and unshadowed by hell. If this be life, what is death? If this be man, what is clay? Yet we must choose between this ghastly alternative and the world of sin and salvation, hope and fear, that we know and live in. Without salvation there can be no heaven, and there can be no salvation without sin.

But this saying demands elucidation. How can sin be conducive to salvation? Only in the same sense, of course, that the death of the body is conducive to the freedom of the soul. In order to put away sin, we must recognize it; but, in order to recognize it, we must experience it. And the manner in which this recognition and experience are brought about is full of enlightenment as to the creative problem. To create is to give being to things. Now, it is easy to imagine a creator giving form or individuality to things, as the sculptor gives form to his marble; but where is the being—the substance—to come from? The sculptor does not make the substance of his statue: he has the substance ready-made, and all he does is to impress upon it the form that was previously in his mind. But the Creator of man has no ready-made substance to work with. The form or idea of that which he is to create is no doubt already present in his mind, but he must himself supply the substance which is to body it forth. We are accustomed to say that he uses matter, or nature, for this purpose; but we know, of course, that matter has

no logical or real existence, but is simply the characteristic hallucination of sense, which our infirm intelligence is obliged to assume as the material basis of phenomena. Matter, viewed from the philosophical stand-point, is simply the testimony in sense of the creative act,—of the voluntary subjection of the Creator to the creature. Now, the creature, being the work of Infinite Love, must be the finite and unconscious image of that Love. Its proper life must lie in uses which it promotes to something beyond itself; but this must be done involuntarily, not consciously. Man, however, is not a simple, but a composite phenomenon: he has not only an organic, unconscious side, but also a spiritual, or self-conscious, side. Evidently, moreover, man is the creature of God only on the former, the unconscious side, which he shares in common with the race: the self-conscious, individual side of him is not created, but in some way begotten out of the other. In so far as he is created, therefore, man is not human, but only animal; while, in so far as he is begotten, he is human, but not physical. The physical part, however, identifies itself with the metaphysical,—animal and human make one,—and man attains to self-consciousness. As a free individual, he appropriates to himself, and voluntarily uses, the contents of that nature which was created impersonal and involuntary. He is under the inevitable persuasion, consequently, that he has life in himself; and, although this is the profoundest of illusions (since all that is living or real in him belongs to the Creator) it serves the important purpose of giving the creature that phenomenal projection from God which is the necessary preliminary to his real conjunction with him. It now only remains to inquire how the human is begotten from the animal, the spirit from the flesh, the personal from the impersonal; for the answer to this question also shows us how man is to be redeemed from the selfish to the social life,—from the love of himself to the love of his neighbor.

This is effected through the instrumentality of what we term conscience, which is that divinely inspired voice or faculty in man which prompts him to distinguish between his physical inheritance and his spiritual destiny, or to vindicate the human principle in him. The first criticism of conscience is directed against the impulses of the nature, which were before instinctive and innocent, but are now characterized as evil. This, however, does not involve a condemnation of the nature *quâ* nature, but merely emphasizes the distinction between animal and human, or suggests and advocates a good more lofty than the gratification of appetite and passion. Thus, conscience

teaches us, not what to embrace, but what to avoid ; it inculcates no such trivial maxim as that this or that specific act is moral or immoral, for this would open the door to endless sophisms and evasions, and would inflame the very craving for God's personal approbation, which it is his chief aim to discourage and abolish ; but, on the contrary, it simply enables man to pronounce himself good or evil according as he obeys or disobeys it.

But the work of conscience is not over when it has reduced to subordination the impulses of the human nature. For the end which the Creator has in view is not the moral perfection of the individual, but his spontaneous identification of himself with the race. The individual, however, has no suspicion of this truth. Shut up, as he is, in his separate physical organization, and burdening himself, as he does, with the whole responsibility of the nature of which he partakes, he cannot help regarding himself as disjoined from God, and seeking to reunite himself,—not by confessing, but by denying himself ; in other words, by the practice of virtue as a means to self-purification. But virtue, the more sedulously it is thus pursued, the more does it separate a man from his fellow, and substitutes isolation for fellowship. And, if the man becomes aware of the stirring in himself of any really divine worth, he attributes it, not to its true source,—the presence of God gradually and secretly transfiguring our common nature, in which he suffers voluntary imprisonment,—but to his own persistence in self-denial ! Thus, he is led to feel his selfhood to be at deadly odds with all other men's, and perversely separates himself from his divine source by the whole extent of that nature in which alone they can be conjoined. But conscience now reveals itself as fatally hostile to all personal pretension, and enjoins us to give up the attempt to reconcile good and evil in our own practice, and to identify ourselves with the evil principle, and assign all good to God. It forbids us to care more for our own welfare than for that of our fellow-men, so that we can only find life by abandoning our individual claims to mercy, save as they are incidental to the universal prosperity. The individual who would satisfy the full demand of conscience would be obliged so to purify and expand his private personality as to render it the equivalent of the indwelling divine perfection. This is the *reductio ad absurdum* with a vengeance ; and, accordingly, we have no other alternative than to relegate such a consummation to the universal or impersonal nature of mankind, and concede to every partaker thereof his equal share in the benefits accruing from it.

But this consummation appears to be still a measurable distance away from us; and, meanwhile, we are constrained to deal with vice and crime as best we can. Society had to be organized somehow; and, since we were not prepared to adopt the true basis of association, we make shift with a provisional expedient. This expedient, curiously enough, though destitute of the genuine spirit of mutual love and charity, copies with sedulous care its external form. Polite society professes not only to be free from any gross form of iniquity itself, but to be of too pure eyes even to behold it, without surprise and horror. In a word, we are to conduct ourselves like a company of angelic spirits, who by some mischance have found their way into an inadequate world, and are doing their best to compensate for the inevitably worldly character of their pursuits and circumstances by casting over them the ethereal glamour of a higher sphere. We acquit ourselves of our distinctively religious obligations by assembling weekly in the building which, by a convenient metonymy, is called the church. What our appearance and actions are while there, all men may see; what our thoughts are, Heaven only knows! As for our business avocations, they are conducted with the most palpable regard to integrity and justice. If anything, there would seem to be a slight tendency to favor our customers rather than ourselves. Our amusements—so far as they are pursued in public—are marked by innocence and propriety; and we are happy, whenever opportunity offers, to mingle a little instruction with them. Our marriages are so brilliantly solemnized as to render the future felicity of the bride and groom a foregone conclusion: with so many other handsome presents, the one little gift of mutual fitness could surely not be lacking. Our charities are a sort of moral bitters, enabling us to digest with comfort any little lumps of forbidden fruit that may have accidentally passed our lips. To pass to the civil aspects of society, our government insures justice to rich and poor alike, provided the means to pay for it are forthcoming; our schools enable our children to know something about everything except about their own nature, capacity, and proclivity; and our prisons seclude the dangerous portion of the community,—those, at least, who are dangerous to our lives and property,—and would doubtless reform them, if tyranny, slavery, the companionship of criminals, and a half-hour with the chaplain could accomplish it.

Now, the irony of all this is obvious and commonplace enough. Everybody knows that the seamy side of society tells another story than does that which is offered to view; and we have all character-

ized that truth by the proverb that "hypocrisy is the homage which vice pays to virtue." But perhaps it has not been quite so obvious that virtue, rather than vice, is responsible for so anomalous a state of things. The virtue that is here meant is that unsocial and Pharisaic habit of self-righteousness which has been already enough described; and it is a melancholy testimony to its virulence and aggressiveness that it should have constrained evil, in the interests of peace and order, to deepen its native swarthiness with the sinister shadow of insincerity. The best hope we have that evil will one day come to the end of its superserviceable career is that it may appear in its naked deformity, and be judged upon its demerits. Whereas to persist in decking it out in angelic feathers is in no way to do credit to the angels, but to prolong the existence of the masquerader just in proportion to the plausibility of the mask. The impulses of our unregenerate nature are precisely those that we see exemplified in the animal creation, where they are indulged without restraint; and we have only to contemplate them to feel assured that no society would be practicable where they were allowed free play. But is society, in the present sense of the word, a thing so supremely lovely and desirable as to be worth retaining, at the cost we pay for it? Are we to go on forever clothing our wolves and foxes in the skins of sheep and asses? If, on the other hand, the evil day is to come, what is to be gained by postponing it? The more consummate our hypocrisy, the more disastrous our final exposure. And it would not be very difficult to surmise the manner in which that exposure might be brought about. The constant spectacle of the make-believe good man, and his conspicuous advantages, due to his serving two masters, must by and by begin to affect the imagination of the sincere votary. He sees that society scrutinizes only the outside of the cup and platter, and that a comparatively small sacrifice to conventional morality sets the man free to enjoy as much private deviltry as he likes. He sees that success in this world is never the reward of merit, but is simply one of the most mysterious dispensations of Providence. He sees that civilization, science, and material prosperity of all kinds proceed quite as rapidly under the hypocritical dispensation as they could be expected to do under a genuine one. And he sees, most plainly of all, that he, who is sincere, is covertly ridiculed by the very persons who are at such pains to ape his sincerity, and that he is fatally handicapped in the race with them. Such being the outlook, it would not be strange were he to conclude that his labor was in vain, and

that he would do wisely to yield to the spirit of the age. And what would happen then? How long would the masquerade continue after the model of the mask had ceased to exist? And, when the long make-believe was over, what sort of an ugly reality would take its place?

The moral failure of our social structure is due to the fact that there is no love in it except the love of self. Society restrains crime, not in the interests of the criminal, but in its own interests. It cares nothing for the criminal's soul, so long as his actions are not offensive; and, its concern being only external and temporal, the snake is at best only scotched, not killed. The criminal feels that he was punished for *betraying*, not for being, himself; and the only lesson he can draw from the experience is to be more careful next time. Religious exhortation leaves him cold, because the exhorter has the air of being on better terms with heaven than he himself is. His hand is against every man, because he feels that every man believes God has turned the cold shoulder on him. He considers, meanwhile, that society is just as much a criminal as he is; the main difference being that society is the stronger, and that there is no one to thwart its desires. He finds nothing to respect, but only something to fear. And his best revenge is in the reflection that, denounced and outcast though he be, the spirit which animates his worst deeds is identical with that which rides in fine carriages and talks grammatical English, and only dares not, for its life, admit even to itself the ruling principle of its own existence. Accordingly, though society may constrain the criminal to conceal, to evade, or to defy, it can never soften him to repentance. He will draw the line there.

Meanwhile, the criminal's Creator sees in him a man who, whatever his other delinquencies, has at least not complicated matters by sending in a bill for services rendered. As for his crimes, they must be charged, inevitably, to the common account of the community that brought him forth; for the evil of every man is that of his place and time, and can neither transcend these in action nor fall below them in potentiality. No doubt, he who chooses to be the slave of his organization, instead of mastering it in the interests of universal freedom, must accept the spiritual consequences of his choice. But why should we express such abhorrence of him, or even such ambiguous professional interest in him? There is nothing monstrous or strange about him. He has but developed externally what, inwardly, we all are. In him, I see manifested the fruit of every evil impulse that I failed to repress in myself, but which, owing to my

more fortunate circumstances or inherited disposition, still remained beneath the surface of action. The crime for which he is in prison is the same that I wished to commit, and was restrained from doing it only because it might compromise my social prospects or shock the taste of my friends or the expectations of my ancestors. This man in jail had no such restraints in his way; and so my crime, by the law of the conservation of energy, which obtains in metaphysics no less than in physics, was committed by this unknown brother of mine, upon whom I now sit so sagely in judgment. Should I not feel indebted to him, rather, for his vicarious services? Should I not at least care for him and minister unto him, and try, not contemptuously or even pityingly, but humbly and with self-shame, to heal him of his grievous wounds? Or shall I hate him, and shrink from him, and disown kinship with him, and cry out that these criminal classes delay the march of civilization and culture? The more loudly I disown him, the more startling does the resemblance between my brother and me become; and, possibly, in the divine sight, he is not the uglier of the two.

It is the old story: we do not discriminate between the criminal and his crime. We are intolerant of the former, because he is inconvenient; but, as for the latter, do we dislike that? Let each soul answer for itself. But meanwhile, so long as our society remains only outwardly social, so long will the truth of the brotherhood of mankind assert itself,—not through their love but through their crimes. It will not be denied! If you crush it down on one side, it reappears on the other. If we will not listen to the voice of God, summoning us to be united in love, we must perforce hear the voice of the devil, chuckling over the chains of our hatreds. And is it not a testimony of the awful and supreme importance of that truth of our brotherhood that hell itself must avouch it, in default of heaven?

Therefore, I do not repine so much when I read every day in the newspapers about the revelation of crime in high places. It shows that that hideous bond of hypocrisy is growing a little weaker. It shows that we are coming to despise this smug and stifling respectability. We lament our loss of reverence; but it is never true goodness that men fail to reverence, but only the false appearance of it. Our revolt against that finds expression in many ways,—even in the rude accents of dynamite, if we are deaf to all else. The moral of dynamite, and of all that dynamite represents, is—Let charity begin at home!—not in our political economy, but in our human sympathies; not in our pockets, but in our hearts.

XIV.

Minutes and Discussions.

SECRETARY'S REPORT.

FIRST SESSION.

Washington, D.C., Thursday night, June 4, 1885.

The Twelfth Annual Session of the National Conference of Charities and Correction began on Thursday night, June 4, 1885, at Willard Hall, Washington, D.C. The Conference was called to order at 7.30 P.M. by the President, Philip C. Garrett. The chairman of the Local Committee, Judge Arthur MacArthur, of the District Supreme Court, presided over the opening exercises. Prayer was offered by the Rev. S. H. Giesey. Judge MacArthur and Commissioner James B. Edmunds made brief addresses of welcome (pages 1 and 2).

A communication was read from his Excellency Grover Cleveland, President of the United States, regretting his inability to attend, as he had expected to do, the opening session of the Conference, and expressing his "deep interest in its object, and the hope that its deliberations may lead to still further reforms in the treatment of the humane questions which its labors have done so much to advance."

Judge MACARTHUR announced an invitation from President Cleveland to the Conference to a reception at the White House on Friday afternoon at half-past one o'clock.

Addresses in response to the words of welcome were made by Hon. Charles Anderson, of Kentucky (page 3), and Hon. Henry M. Hoyt, of Pennsylvania (page 8).

The President's annual address was delivered by Philip C. Garrett (page 11).

On motion, it was voted to accept the invitation of his Excellency the President of the United States to the reception on Friday.

On motion, it was voted that a committee of five on credentials be appointed by the Chair.

On motion, it was voted that a business committee of five be appointed by the Chair.

These committees were announced as follows :—

On credentials : Dr. A. G. Byers, of Ohio ; A. S. Pratt, of the District of Columbia ; Gen. R. Brinkerhoff, of Ohio ; Peter Caldwell, of Kentucky ; and Rev. J. L. Milligan, of Pennsylvania.

On business : H. H. Giles, of Wisconsin ; William Howard Neff, of Ohio ; W. J. Sawyer, of Pennsylvania ; Andrew E. Elmore, of Wisconsin ; William P. Letchworth, of New York.

Mrs. SARA A. SPENCER invited the Conference, in the name of the Local Committee, to a reception in the parlors of Willard's hotel. Adjourned at 10 P.M.

SECOND SESSION.

Friday morning, June 5.

The Conference met at 9 A.M., President Garrett in the chair. Prayer was offered by the Rev. M. McG. Dana, D.D.

H. H. GILES, chairman of the Business Committee, reported a resolution that each speaker should be limited to ten minutes, and that State reports be limited to the same number of minutes. On motion, it was voted to adopt this resolution.

On motion, it was voted that a committee on the organization of the Conference for the coming year be appointed. The following committee was therefore appointed : Dr. C. S. Hoyt, of New York ; W. H. Neff, of Ohio ; Dr. Edward Hitchcock, of Massachusetts ; Andrew E. Elmore, of Wisconsin ; Dr. Richard Gundry, of Maryland ; Philip C. Garrett, of Pennsylvania ; William P. Letchworth, of New York ; Fred H. Wines, of Illinois ; F. B. Sanborn, of Massachusetts ; and Dr. A. G. Byers, of Ohio.

On motion, it was voted that a committee on time and place of the next meeting should be appointed, to be composed of one member from each State and Territory, each State or Territory selecting its own member. The committee thus formed was as follows :—

Alabama, Dr. J. H. Johnson ; California, Dr. Charles M. Blake ; Colorado, Mrs. J. S. Sperry ; Dakota, Charles Koehler ; Delaware, William M. Canby ; Florida, W. D. Chipley ; Georgia, J. H. Estill ;

Illinois, C. G. Trusdell; Indiana, C. H. Reeve; Iowa, Dr. P. W. Lewellen; Kentucky, J. D. Pickett; Maryland, G. S. Griffith; Massachusetts, John Fallon; Michigan, Joseph Nicholson; Minnesota, Rev. M. McG. Dana; Missouri, Rev. T. P. Haley; Nebraska, Mrs. A. F. Newman; New Hampshire, Dr. J. E. Mason; New Jersey, Dr. E. M. Hunt; New York, S. R. Welles; North Carolina, J. H. Mills; Ohio, Gen. R. Brinkerhoff; Oregon, Rev. A. L. Lindsley; Pennsylvania, Gen. W. W. H. Davis; Rhode Island, Henry L. Greene; South Carolina, Rev. W. P. Jacobs; Tennessee, Dr. R. D. Sims; Texas, Dr. A. N. Denton; Vermont, W. G. Fairbank; Virginia, R. W. Cridlin; Wisconsin, A. O. Wright; District of Columbia, Rev. W. A. Bartlett.

A communication was received, asking the Conference to visit the Maryland penitentiary. On motion, it was voted to accept this invitation, and invitations to all institutions, as individual members, since it would be impossible for the Conference to attend in a body.

The regular business of the morning, reports from States, was then taken up. In the absence of the chairman of the committee having that subject in charge, Rev. F. H. Wines, the report of the committee was read by William Howard Neff (page 26). The roll of States and Territories was then called, and reports were read, as follows (pages 27-93).

Alabama, Dr. Peter Bryce, read by the secretary; Arkansas, Dr. C. C. Forbes, read by the secretary; California, E. R. Highton, read by the secretary; Colorado, Mrs. J. S. Sperry, read by the secretary, at Mrs. Sperry's request, although she was present; Connecticut, Henry E. Burton; Dakota, Charles M. Koehler, read by the secretary, at Mr. Koehler's request; Delaware, W. M. Canby; Georgia, Gustavus A. Orr, read by the secretary; Illinois, J. W. Whipp; Indiana, Rev. O. C. McCulloch; Iowa, Dr. Jennie McCowen; Kentucky, Peter Caldwell, read by the secretary, at Mr. Caldwell's request; Maine, Rev. J. K. Mason, read by the secretary; Maryland, a committee appointed by the governor, read by Rev. L. F. Zinkhan; Massachusetts, C. F. Donnelly, read by Mr. Fallon; Michigan, W. J. Baxter and Levi Barbour; Minnesota, Rev. H. H. Hart; Missouri, Rt. Rev. C. F. Robertson and Rev. T. P. Haley; Nebraska, Rt. Rev. J. A. Gillespie, supplemented by a statement from Mrs. A. F. Newman; Nevada, Rev. James A. Wood, read by the secretary; New Hampshire, Rev. S. C. Beane, read by the secretary; New Jersey, Dr. E. M. Hunt.

The other reports from States were read at the opening of the fol-

lowing sessions, but, for convenience of reference, are named here : New York, Dr. Charles S. Hoyt ; North Carolina, W. J. Hicks ; Ohio, William Howard Neff ; Oregon, Rev. A. L. Lindsley ; Pennsylvania, W. J. Sawyer ; Rhode Island, W. W. Chapin, read by the secretary, and Henry L. Greene ; South Carolina, P. E. Griffin, read by the secretary ; Tennessee, Mrs. L. Merriwether, read by the secretary ; Texas, Dr. A. N. Denton ; Vermont, W. G. Fairbank ; Virginia, I. M. Curry, W. E. Hatcher, and John B. Crenshaw ; West Virginia, Rev. R. R. Swope ; Wisconsin, H. H. Giles.

No report was received from Kansas, but Mr. Sanborn made a brief statement in reference to that State. The Board of Charities there was practically displaced two years ago, in consequence of a political overturning ; and a new one was appointed. The work of the charities was somewhat interfered with in consequence. That action has now been reversed ; the old board, substantially, has been replaced, and the legislature has taken steps to adopt some of its recommendations. One of these is important. It is in reference to establishing a reformatory for young criminals similar to that of Elmira. A committee of gentlemen is now visiting the State of New York to gather information concerning it. With reference to another point, Mr. SANBORN said a few words : "The United States, although it does not maintain any prison for prisoners sentenced in her courts, does maintain, within the limits of the State of Kansas, on a military reservation, a military prison near Leavenworth. It is the only one of the kind in the country, and its experience is unique." He suggested that a report be obtained from there for a future Conference.

Dr. BYERS reported the following resolution from the Committee on Credentials : —

Resolved, That all persons included in the call to the Twelfth Annual National Conference of Charities and Correction—to wit, members of Boards of State Charities, persons appointed officially as delegates by governors of States and Territories, all persons accredited from Charity Organizations, and all bodies and institutions which have for their object either the prevention or cure of social ills—shall be recognized as active members of this Conference, and entitled to participation in all the proceedings of the Conference. In addition thereto, our committee would recommend that all persons in attendance as visitors be requested to record their names as such, giving post-office address and institutional or charitable or correctional interest represented by them, and that all names and credentials be handed to the Secretary of the Conference, Rev. H. H. Hart, who will secure their publication at once, so as to insure a corrected list for the minutes of the Conference.

An invitation was received from the Baltimore House of Refuge to visit that institution. An invitation was extended to the Conference to attend a meeting in behalf of prison reform, to be held Sunday night in the First Presbyterian Church, under the auspices of the National Prison Association.

The following resolution, offered by JOSHUA L. BAILY, of Pennsylvania, was referred to the Business Committee :—

Resolved, That, in the judgment of this Conference, as the result of the observation of its members, intemperance is the chief factor in the creation of pauperism, most potent stimulant to crime, and is the primary cause of a very large percentage of insanity, idiocy, and other misfortunes of the dependent classes.

Resolved, That it is indispensable to radical reform in the direction of all charitable and correctional effort that the radical cause of these evils should be abated and, so far as possible, suppressed.

Resolved, That this Conference cordially sympathizes in every proper effort to promote sobriety, and especially in the effort now making to secure temperance instruction in our common schools.

Adjourned at 12.30 P.M.

THIRD SESSION.

Friday night, June 5.

The Conference met at 7.30 P.M., the President in the chair. The Committee on Organization was appointed. (The names of this committee are given, for convenience, on page 423.) The following resolution, reported by the Business Committee, was unanimously adopted :—

Resolved, That the daily sessions of the Conference be held as published in the printed programme, and that the morning session open at 9 o'clock and adjourn at 12 o'clock, noon; the afternoon session begin at 2 o'clock, and close at 5; the evening session begin at 7.30, and close at will.

Reports from the States of North Carolina and Ohio were read (pages 70 and 72).

Judge W. B. Snell read a paper upon "The Prisons of the District of Columbia" (page 297).

Ex-Governor Henry M. Hoyt, of Pennsylvania, read a paper upon "The Evolution of the Prison" (page 286).

Charles Dudley Warner gave an address describing the Elmira Reformatory (page 275). At the close, he was asked by Miss Phæbe Couzins if there were any women in that institution.

Mr. WARNER.—Women prisoners are pretty scarce in our part of the country. There are none in that institution, and I do not know

of any institution of that kind for them. In Connecticut, we have about three women criminals to three hundred and fifty men. We do not encourage them.

The Conference adjourned at 10.15 P.M.

FOURTH SESSION.

Saturday morning, June 6.

The Conference met at 9 o'clock, the President in the chair. Prayer was offered by the Rev. Placide L. Chapelle, D.D.

Reports from the States of Oregon, Pennsylvania, and Rhode Island were read (pages 74 and 79).

The order for the morning was "The Organization and Management of Prisons and Reformatories." In the absence of R. W. M'Claghry, the chairman of the committee on that subject, Z. R. Brockway was asked to conduct the discussion.

A paper by T. B. Ll. Baker, of Gloucestershire, England, on the Police, was read by Gen. Brinkerhoff (page 311).

A paper was read by A. O. Wright on "The Construction and Management of Jails" (page 304).

DISCUSSION.

Gen. BRINKERHOFF.—In Ohio, we have made the jails a subject of examination and of experiment, and have settled upon a policy in accordance with the suggestions presented in Mr. Wright's paper; and I can thoroughly emphasize our approval of it. I will only add, if you are building a jail, build it not for the classification of prisoners into two or three grades, but so that they shall be classified as individuals. That is what we build in Ohio now. In the town where I reside, Mansfield, we have had a jail of that kind in operation for two years. No prisoner is allowed to see any other prisoner. He may come there and spend the entire time of his detention without any other prisoner seeing or knowing him, and may thus go on his way without any contamination. It is not a school of crime. There is also absolute safety. If the jailer's wife wants to run it, she can do it as well as a man, so far as safety is concerned. We cannot make any progress in dealing with the criminal classes until we reform our jails. They ought to be revolutionized. The best sentiment of this Conference should be brought to bear in this direction. There are other papers that ought to be alluded to. The paper from Delaware, the State report, contained at least one sentiment that ought not to go out as indorsed by this Conference. Instead of replying to it myself, I would suggest that the Chair call upon a gentleman who is perfectly familiar with the jails of Delaware, Mr. Griffith, of Baltimore.

Mr. GRIFFITH.—I feel a delicacy in speaking of the Delaware county jails; but, being called upon by Gen. Brinkerhoff, I cannot well refuse, as I am somewhat familiar with them. I was very much surprised at the report made by the gentleman from Delaware in regard to the number of prisoners in their jails, and thought possibly some mistake had been made. From my observation, the prison population is much greater in Delaware, according to the number of its inhabitants, than in Maryland, or in most of the States of the Union. Delaware is a small State, with a population of 146,608. It has three county jails, and a lock-up in the city of Wilmington, but no State penitentiary. A few years ago, I visited the several counties, and was greatly surprised at the condition of the jails. They were nothing more nor less than schools of vice, a disgrace and a reproach to any civilized country. In the Newcastle jail, I found eighty-five prisoners, including ten children from eight to fifteen years of age, one so small that it could creep through the bars; and all were mingled miscellaneously together with those steeped in crime. On seeing this condition of things, I spoke to some of the prominent citizens about it, and was asked to publish a letter criticising the condition of their jails, which I did. There was no moral nor religious instruction given in the jails, and no Bibles nor reading matter distributed. Neither minister nor layman came to give a word of counsel or advice to begin a new and better life. My spirit was stirred within me by seeing this state of things. The Newcastle jail was in good condition; but the others were dirty, filthy, and deplorable. Besides the policy pursued in other respects, this is the only State where the pillory and the whipping-post are still publicly used; and it is a reproach to any State to use them in this manner. The effect is very bad. The report from Delaware says that it drives away the offenders, that they seldom return a second time after having been once whipped. But I ask, Is this the proper course to pursue? Is it right for one State to use such appliances as to send away its prison population to become a tax and burden upon other States? Is it not the duty of each State to care for its own prisoners and to use every moral appliance for their reformation? In gathering statistics of the jails, penitentiaries, and almshouses of the United States, I wrote, asking the sheriffs of Delaware to give me information in regard to the number committed to their respective prisons in 1884. I received a reply from Newcastle County, showing that 650 prisoners had been committed during that year, the daily average in jail being 75, and that 2,037 were arrested and placed in the lock-up at Wilmington. I received no replies from the sheriffs of the other counties, but, judging from the statistics of this one county, should think the number committed to the Delaware jails would not be less than from 2,500 to 3,000 during a year. I will at least venture to assert that the prison population of the State of Delaware is larger in proportion to its population than it is in most of the States of the Union, notwithstanding they have the pillory and the whipping-post. Publicly lashing a man harrows up the worst feeling in his soul, and drives from it every remnant of a better nature; and,

after he has undergone that process, he is so desperate that he is fit for the accomplishment of almost any evil deed. I believe in the necessity of severe punishments, but also that we should do all in our power to lift up and help fallen humanity. No criminal sinks so low but there remains a chord that may be touched by proper treatment, and every system that contains hindrances to this great object should be abolished. The prisoners here serve out their term of sentence, and then emerge from their prison walls worse than when they enter. They have no Prisoners' Aid Association to counsel them and look after their interests, or give them temporary aid after their discharge. Delaware needs a reformatory institution for the young, a proper classification of the prisoners, and work for the criminals. Without these, their system will continue a failure and their prisons will be schools of vice.

Gen. DAVIS.—In Pennsylvania, I think we have solved the problem of county prisons successfully. Within the last two years, my native county, Bucks, the old county of William Penn, needed a new jail. By an act of the Assembly, no jail can be constructed, unless the plans meet the approval of the Board of State Charities. When the question came up, we had a long struggle. In the first place, it has to be approved by two consecutive grand juries, then by the Board of State Charities, to which the plans and specifications are submitted. They must indorse their approval in writing. A copy must be filed at Harrisburg also. We got the consent of two consecutive grand juries, and then came up the question, What kind of a jail should we have? We employed a level-headed architect, and, after the submission of two or three plans, approved of one based on the single story cell system. We have therefore turned over to the county commissioners a jail, the outer wall of which encloses four acres and is twenty-five feet high. There are fifty-two cells, in three corridors, leading from a common centre, which is used as a guard-room. The cells are 8 x 17, with all needed appliances for comfort, convenience, and security, ventilated and lighted from overhead. There are no grated windows. The doors in front are made of heavy cross-bars, with a wooden door outside. Water and gas can be controlled from outside. The corridors are twelve feet wide. The doors are arranged in such a way that the prisoner may be unchained in his cell. He cannot get out. Under the Act of the Assembly of 1851, all county jails, after that date, were to be conducted on the solitary system, and the prisoners kept at labor; and all new jails are being built with that intent. Philadelphia is to have a new county jail, the outer wall of which encloses thirty acres of land, and will be thirty feet high. There will be seven hundred and thirty-five separate cells, with all modern appliances for comfort and convenience. I want to ask my friends from other States to think about this system in the construction of jails. The one-story cell plan gives broader corridors and a better chance to control unruly prisoners. There is nothing to interfere with bringing the whole force of the jail to prevent any outbreak, or to stop it, if it has taken place. As to the cost of ours, we paid \$1,750 for four

acres of land. The contract price for building the walls and completing the jail, with the exception of the heating and lighting apparatus, was \$72,000. It is now complete. Every workman on the walls was a master mason. There was not an apprentice or a journeyman among them.

Mr. MASSEY.—If I may have a few minutes, I would like to correct what seems to me a false impression in regard to the State of Delaware. I endeavored to collect some statistics in relation to the whipping-post, but they have such an overworked set of officials in the county offices that I could not collect very many. But they are not so unfavorable for a community which uses this "relic of barbarism." The present criminal population of the State is 89, as given me by the wardens, or an average of about 100. In 1880, the criminal population of the United States was, in round numbers, 60,000, or about 1 in every 833 of the total population. Reckoning the population of Delaware at 150,000, and the average criminal population at 100, would give only 1 criminal in every 1,500 in the State of Delaware. Again, take the number of crimes committed in the United States in 1880, for which whipping is the penalty in Delaware, and we find about 25,000, or 1 in every 2,000 of the total population. But the number of persons whipped in Delaware in this same year (1880) was only 25, or 1 in every 6,000 of the population of the State. This, of course, is not exact; but there is room for a wide margin, and yet show favorable statistics for Delaware. Chief Justice Comegys, of Dover, says: "The whipping-post is greatly misunderstood. Usually, only those are whipped who are hardened criminals, in whom there is little hope of reformation." It is not considered reformatory, but preventive or repressive. A large majority of the leading citizens of Delaware are in favor of the post. It seems to me that this question is well worthy of careful, unbiassed consideration.

Mr. ROUND.—I congratulate myself on hearing Gen. Davis. If we in New York could feel that we could escape our difficulties by adopting the one-story cell system, we should want to consider the subject most carefully. When I began the study of prisons, I began with the reports of the Prison Association of New York; and, in the first report of that society, held more than forty years ago, they discussed the jails from the same stand-point that we do now, calling them relics of barbarism. Going farther back, and examining the reports of the Society for Alleviating the Miseries of Public Prisons, in Philadelphia, I found them discussing the subject in the same way, and asking, What shall we do with our county jails? If we go across the water, we find them, up to ten years ago, in England in much the same condition, asking, What shall we do with our borough prisons? We have not touched in any of these discussions the nerve of this subject. The whole system is a bad one. We have men breaking State laws, and sent to county prisons, where there is no one responsible for their keeping to the State. The responsibility in our State and, I suppose, in others is really to a very large number of partisan managers. The whole trouble is that our county

jails are the centres of little circles of political corruption. They form a system, or rather no system, which cannot be much improved, because the responsibility is constantly shifting from one board of management to another. If, in Wisconsin, for instance, the excellent suggestions which have been made by Mr. Wright were to be adopted, the jail might, for that year or for two years, be well kept; but, just as soon as there was a change in administration, it might come to be — what most of our county jails are — a county boarding-house, kept at the expense of the people, in the interest of the sheriff. We get a sheriff in, and think we have a good man, or train him to be a good keeper; but his term of office expires, and he is ineligible for re-election. Another is brought into office, and he knows that he must make money where the old sheriff got his; and, when his term expires, still another comes in. Now, I think we may well learn a lesson from England, and put an end to this system radically. England, by the Act of 1877, has abolished the county jail, or borough prison, system. We may expect to go on discussing these questions of county jail management just as long as we have the spectacle of State laws broken by people who are taken care of by irresponsible county managers. We shall never see an end of this matter till the State stretches out her broad arms, and takes the county jails under her care and protection, as England has done, with such results as have made her general penal system perhaps the best in the world.

Mr. REEVE, of Indiana, thought that the public was first to be considered in the question of providing for criminals. It seemed to him hardly the thing that poor laboring men should be taxed to keep criminals and tramps in homes better than their own. Safety and sanitary conditions, not luxury, should be provided for law-breakers. He believed in the Elmira system for convicts, where they should be trained to work, and earn an honest living. He thought it was better for the Conference to consider whether there *should be* county jails rather than how to build them; if there *were* to be jails, where should they be, and who should take care of them. He wanted to see them taken out of the realm of politics and put in the hands of the State.

The following resolution was offered, and by vote referred to the Business Committee:—

Resolved, That a committee, consisting of Gen. R. Brinkerhoff, F. H. Wines, Rev. J. L. Milligan, Z. R. Brockway, and G. S. Griffith, be appointed to take into consideration the subject of federal prisons, and report to the next Conference; with power to represent the Conference in asking for legislation by Congress, if they think it expedient to attempt to secure legislation at present.

The Committee on Time and Place was announced (page 423). An invitation was extended to the Conference to visit the Garfield Memorial Hospital. The Secretary was directed to acknowledge it, with thanks.

Adjourned at 12.30 P.M.

FIFTH SESSION.

Saturday night, June 6.

The Conference met at 7.30 P.M., the President in the chair. Reports from South Carolina, Tennessee, and Texas were read (pages 80, 81, and 83).

An invitation was extended by Miss Cleveland, through Miss Phœbe Couzins, to the ladies of the Conference to a reception at the White House on Monday, June 8, between twelve and one o'clock. On motion, Miss Cleveland was invited to attend the sessions of the Conference, and to take part in its discussions.

The order for the evening was the report of the Standing Committee on the Employment of Juvenile Delinquents, Dr. A. G. Byers, chairman. The subject was opened by the report of the chairman (page 241). Mrs. M. E. Cobb, superintendent of Wisconsin Industrial School for Girls, followed with a paper on "Instructive and Productive Employments in Industrial Schools and Houses of Refuge" (page 247).

A paper was read by Major T. J. Charlton, superintendent of the Indiana Reform School for Boys, on "Labor in Reform Schools for Boys" (page 258).

A paper was read by Eugene Smith, secretary of the Prison Association, New York, on "Labor as a Means of Reformation" (page 265).

The following resolution, offered by LEWIS ABRAHAM, of the Industrial Home School, Washington, was referred to the Business Committee:—

Resolved, That it is the sense of this Conference that the government of the United States, by Congressional enactment, should maintain in the District of Columbia reformatory and industrial homes, of the most approved character, for the reception of the dependent population in the District, and especially for the care and protection of its destitute minors.

Resolved, That suitable appropriations should be made by Congress from the public treasury for training the dependent youth of the District of Columbia in useful and industrial pursuits.

Mr. Elmore was asked to open the discussion on the Employment of Juvenile Delinquents.

DISCUSSION.

Mr. ELMORE.—I once thought I knew considerable about reformatories; but I have changed my mind, and now think I don't know anything. I was twenty-one years a manager of one of those institutions, and thought I knew something about how to do it; but, when gentlemen get up and talk about their different systems, as they do,

I think I am an old fogey, and give it up. You cannot run them on any particular system. You have got to have teachers with common sense, who will take each individual child, learn its disposition, and train it accordingly. No iron-clad rule will avail at all. I am in favor of saying we will have no corporal punishment; but, after all, there is an immense amount of moral suasion in a rawhide, well applied. You must have teachers with humanity in their hearts, who are willing to work, and not those who see how little they can do, and how much they can get for it.

A DELEGATE.—I have seen the plan tried of doing away with corporal punishment, and feeding the boys on sugar-plums. But it will not do. Again, you must have some work for them, or else you may as well give up the idea of reforming them; and that work must be constant and regular. The first thing we have to contend with in any boy is the want of regularity. The sooner we can get the boys and girls to understand that they must do something regularly, the sooner we are on the road to their reformation. And, while we instruct them in manual labor, I also advocate that we instruct them in intellectual knowledge. Divide the day into work, study, and recreation. I notice that in Mrs. Cobb's school they put in nine hours a day of work and study. The board of trustees of my school has seen fit to find fault with me for working the boys nine hours and a quarter a day, with the rest of the time devoted to recreation, though our boys are admitted from eight to sixteen. They have authorized me to make the hours of labor four, school three, and the rest of the day devoted to recreation. [Dr. Byers, interrupting, Amen.] Work, while reforming, is ennobling. I stood in the capitol of the nation to-day. If it could be said of me that I designed that grand building, I should consider it the finest monument that could be erected to my memory. But, if I could not have grasped the design, I would have been willing to carry the stones and mortar with which it is laid. While we should teach our boys to aim high, we should make them willing, if they cannot put the capstone on, to dig the hole for the foundation. We teach our boys, for their reformation, blacksmithing, tailoring, shoemaking, cooking, general housework, and farming, including the raising of fruit, vegetables, and garden products. Besides that, we give them three hours a day in school, to lay the foundation of a good English education.

Dr. BYERS.—We are not discussing the question whether children are to be tied up by the thumbs or whipped by a rod, but simply the subject of employments. I feel that it is due to the authors of these papers that we should not criticise points which they did not discuss.

Mr. WOLF.—I have enjoyed the papers read to-night, for their philosophy, their humanity, and for their elevated tone and character. I belong to that race which has no reformatory schools, sends very few to prison, none to the poor or work house, but cares for its own poor, and yet contributes for the elevation of all. Therefore, I can perhaps discriminate as others cannot. In my judgment, the question is not so much how to reform as *how to prevent*. If you dignify the home circle, and bring back within those homes the

reverence for age, and the respect for father and mother that used to obtain in old times, you will at the same time teach the child to respect himself, no matter what labor he does. It is the lack of self-respect that degrades a man or woman. Make the women of America feel that to know how to cook a good dinner may prevent divorce; make the workingman's wife feel that she cannot do what the banker's wife does,—and you will prevent speculation and the population of Canada at the expense of the United States. Make people understand that a child that has been brought up in an orphan institution is just as good, if well behaved and moral, as your child or mine, and you will lift the institution in the estimation of the community. I have been interested in these papers on prison reform; but they ignore the important question in the prisoner's life,—as to how society receives and treats him, when he comes out. There is the secret of reform. If a prisoner comes back equipped with all that is necessary to make a man of him again, how does society receive him? How does the workingman receive him, if he is a bricklayer, a carpenter, or whatever he may be? The same treatment runs from the lowest to the highest strata of society. The men and women who come back with the best intentions of making good citizens are driven, by our modern Christian society, back into crime. Then the question comes, How shall we reform ourselves, how lay broad and deep our humanity, not upon the lips, but in our acts? Finally, I say there is no reform possible in prisons or industrial schools or orphan asylums without taking them altogether out of the reach of politicians. As long as you leave them within the reach of the grasping avarice of low politics, you can never expect that reform which is absolutely essential to make reform worth working for. You have got to bring them into the hands of good men and women to make them better. If you do this, you will accomplish great good.

Adjourned at 11 P.M.

SIXTH SESSION.

Monday morning, June 8.

The Conference met at nine o'clock, the President in the chair. Prayer was offered by Rabbi Stern.

On motion, it was voted that the time of speakers be limited to five minutes instead of ten.

Mr. REEVE, of Indiana, offered the following resolution, which, by vote, was referred to the Executive Committee:—

Resolved, That a committee be appointed by the Chair, the number to be fixed by him, and not to include the mover, to inquire into the expediency of a permanent organization for this Conference; and that it report by to-morrow afternoon. And, if it report favorable to organization, that it further report suggestions for a plan of organization; that is to say, either a skeleton plan or a plan

for action by a committee or committees, to sit during vacation and make report to the next session of the Conference.

The following resolution, also offered by Mr. Reeve, was referred to the Business Committee:—

Whereas persons who indulge in habitual inebriation are in a diseased condition that requires proper treatment as much as cases of mental derangement, and whereas such treatment cannot be given, unless the patient can be placed under necessary restraint, and to that end statutory enactments, under which proper places and officers can be provided, are indispensable, and whereas such enactments are not now in existence,—therefore,

Resolved, That the Chair shall fix the number of members, and name a committee (not including the mover) to inquire into the expediency of bringing the matter before the legislatures of the States, by resolutions, memorials, or other practical methods, and report the methods for action by this Conference, if they find it expedient.

Reports were read from the States of Vermont, Virginia, West Virginia, and Wisconsin (pages 84, 85, 89, and 91).

The subject for the day was Provision for the Insane. The report of the Standing Committee having that subject in charge was made by the chairman, Dr. John B. Chapin, of Pennsylvania (page 94). On motion of Mr. Wright, the recommendation in the close of Dr. Chapin's report (page 105) was referred to the Executive Committee.

A paper was read by Dr. W. W. Godding, of the District of Columbia, entitled "The Recognition of Classes of the Insane in Asylum Construction" (page 105).

A note was read from Miss Cleveland, accepting the invitation of the Conference to attend its sessions, but declining to take part in its discussions, since she preferred to come as a listener and a learner solely.

A paper was read by Dr. John H. Vivian, of Wisconsin, on "Provision for the Chronic Insane" (page 112).

DISCUSSION.

Gen. BRINKERHOFF heartily indorsed the papers that had been presented by Dr. Chapin and Dr. Godding. He thought that no papers more advanced in their practical ideas of the care of the insane had ever been presented to the Conference. While he could commend much of the paper last read, in reference to the care of the insane in Wisconsin, yet he could not commend the system, although he believed that Wisconsin had the best county asylums in this country. He could not indorse the idea that the insane in these county asylums do not need any medical care. He hoped that the

people of Wisconsin would rise to the conception that, after all, State care, with the supervision of State officials, is the only proper care for the chronic as well as for the acute insane. This is a new era in the care of the insane, continued Gen. Brinkerhoff. Greater advance has been made within the last five years than in the previous twenty. It has been thought that care without mechanical restraint could not be carried out in this country, although it was done in Great Britain. It was supposed that there was a difference in character and temperament in the two peoples that forbade any such advance. But that has been demonstrated to be a mistake, and there are asylums now in which mechanical restraints of every kind have been swept away. In that great asylum at Norristown, where there are twelve hundred patients, I did not see a single person in any form of mechanical restraint. At the bottom of this change lie the industrial employment of patients and the higher grade of asylum attendants. It cannot all be done in a moment, but it can be done. There are two asylums in Ohio in which this advance has been made to a certain extent.

Dr. HOYT.—It is within my remembrance when nearly all of the insane in our asylums were provided for in single rooms. Dr. Godding, in his paper, now limits those requiring such rooms to the disturbed, violent, and dangerous classes, and to certain epileptics, with a per capita outlay of \$1,000 for shelter. I desire to raise the question whether single rooms could not properly be dispensed with even for these classes? It is true, we may protect society and the patients' associates in single rooms with less supervisory force than otherwise; but do we thus reach the highest curative results? Would it not be better to lessen the cost of the buildings for these classes, by dispensing with single rooms, reserving our resources for a closer and more thorough supervision? The Binghamton State Asylum of New York has received over seven hundred chronic insane from poorhouses, many of them of the most violent and dangerous class. And, although it has been in operation about five years, with comparatively no single rooms, not a serious accident, thus far, has occurred in the institution. The insane in the Willard Asylum have also been taken largely from the dangerous and troublesome classes; and during the fifteen years it has been in existence, now sheltering over 1,800 patients, with an unusually large proportion of associate rooms, its record of assaults and injuries will compare favorably with other asylums of the country, in which the association is more restricted. In view of these facts, I believe that the day is not far distant when single rooms for the insane, as a means of confinement and security, will be almost wholly, if not entirely, abandoned; and these ends, with better curative results, will be attained by an enlarged and more vigilant personal supervision.

Dr. GODDING.—In reply to Dr. Hoyt's question, I can speak only in accordance with the light I have. During the fifteen years that I have been a superintendent, I have been opening doors, extending paroles, putting in associate dormitories, etc.; but I have not reached the height where I would dare provide for all my patients in asso-

ciate rooms. I do not mean to say it cannot be done. I understand in all this matter the right of individual judgment must be exercised. With a conscientious superintendent and a good corps of officers, very much depends, I allow, on the ideas with which they start into the service. If they believe that every unruly man has got to wear a camisole, the chances are that he will. We may reach the time when all can be provided for in associate wards, but I cannot so treat dangerous cases in their homicidal mania. It does increase the vigilance of your attendants, and in that direction I regard non-restraint as most amply vindicated. But the patient himself is not always troubled by wearing restraints. His mind is off on other things. As to the employment of night nurses, we employ eight, distinct from the regular night watch. We have a night medical service, with night nurses. I think even further advance might be made in this direction. I do not advocate non-restraint in the case of the criminal insane. I believe these should be guarded from injuring others, certainly where they are associated with the non-criminal class. I do not forget the rights of the homicidal maniac, but I am also thinking of the patient who sleeps at his side. As I said, I act as I have light. God help me, I can do no more!

Mr. ELMORE.—The world moves. In 1878, our board went to Detroit and said, "What shall we do with our chronic insane?" for that was the cry in Wisconsin. Echo answered, "What?" Not a man could tell us anything about it. We went home and said to our folks: "We have got to contrive some way. Nobody at Detroit nor at the East, where we looked for information, can tell us anything about it." The next year, in this very same hall, the association of the superintendents of insane hospitals had a meeting. I came, and asked what should be done with the chronic insane. They looked at me, as much as to say, "Oh, you are not a medical man: none but M.D.'s can tell anything about chronic insane or any others." So home I went, and we started out. My friend from Ohio looked at me as insane myself, because I told him that we could take care of them without any aid. We started the county system. They said it would be a failure in three years; but we have compelled the doubters to recognize it, and we believe it is the solution of how to take care of the chronic insane in a humane way. If I had time, I could tell of instance after instance of men, who had been from three to twenty years in our State institutions, who have gone from our county asylums back to their families. When I go across the lake and see fifty crib beds in our State hospital, and able-bodied young men pacing up and down, with nothing to do, and no liberty, it makes my heart bleed. We believe in our county system. And, if any members of this Conference will visit our county asylums, we will take them from and return them to Chicago as our guests, and at our expense; and we court a thorough examination.

Mrs. SPENCER.—What we ought to do is not merely to cure insanity, but to prevent it. When this Conference met in Wisconsin, we visited the State institution for the insane. By humane, enlightened treatment, they claim to cure their insane and send

them back to their families in considerable numbers. I found a multitude of people engaged in agricultural and domestic employment, but few left in the house, and none confined. I asked what was the special malady that afflicted one of the women who sat, looking fierce and dangerous, in the house. I was told that she was one of the worst cases: she had killed four of her children. "What," I asked, "at once?" Oh, no! she had killed them successively, as they were born, after being restored *cured* to her family. It was a cruel wrong to humanity that this woman was ever sent back to her family to be again a mother. Persons who have tendencies like that should not be discharged *cured*, or discharged at all. We multiply insanity by apparent humanity. The truest humanity would be absolutely to stop the supply. Another woman was described by Dr. Jennie McCowen as brought to an insane hospital by her husband, who described her as one of the best women in the world, the mother of eight children. She had taken incessant care of her children and her fireside. She had never been in the habit of "gadding about," hardly ever even went to church; and why this affliction had been visited upon *him*, he could not see. If that woman had gone about in the world, if she had gathered the cheer and magnetism that come from meeting such people as attend this Conference, she would not have visited that insane hospital as a patient. Let better care and happier lives be provided for mothers, as the first step in lessening the vast army of the insane.

Mr. WRIGHT.—It would be impossible for us here to define all the causes that produce insanity. It is sufficient to say that in a stable civilization all these causes come to about the same proportion, perhaps to about one in every three hundred of the population, or thereabouts. The Western and Southern States have not yet come to that proportion, but are coming to it very rapidly. We have not reached it yet in the West, because that part of the country was settled by a selected class of people, from whom the insane and those of insane tendencies were excluded by the necessities of pioneer life. The point suggested by Mrs. Spencer is very important. But it is well to bear in mind that, by holding a large proportion of the insane in institutions, we are now preventing the propagation of insanity, as far as they are concerned. As to the causes, heredity is the chief cause, and intemperance the second. If the country will prevent drunkenness, we shall cut off, perhaps, a quarter of the insanity of the country. General enlightenment and a diffusion of correct ideas about the right way of living will also have a very important influence. The recent action of several States in requiring the teaching of the laws of health by text-books, in the common schools, is a good thing in this line.

Dr. GUNDRY.—I am always thankful when the energies of any State are turned to the care of the insane, and pray God speed the good cause! Almost any plan urged by men like Mr. Elmore and Mr. Giles, and having their personal attention, will succeed as long as they live. The test comes when the men whose especial work it was to guard the system are called away, and it falls into the hands

of those who may be less fitted to take charge of such a matter. So, I say, we must suspend judgment upon the Wisconsin system, however admirably it works now. It is untried: it is doing well. I trust it may succeed. But to-day we must bring in the verdict of "Not proven."

Mr. ELMORE.—We will prove it.

Dr. GUNDRY.—I only say it is *not* proven now. In regard to another matter: It has been suggested that we should build institutions where a class of the insane should be shut out forever from the world. I agree that society and other patients must be protected from those who have homicidal impulses. But there are homicides and homicides. Would you have immured Mary Lamb in such a place? She went home. Charles Lamb sacrificed all his life to her, devoting his energies, and watching her every movement. And, when the time came,—too often, alas!—they were seen going across the fields to the asylum, where she was to be during the attack. It is not right to make such a strong, marked distinction of a class which may include many of very different temperaments and capacities, having only the one characteristic of having slain some one. I think the less we have the classes marked by any one distinctive feature, the better. So in regard to suicides. I do not suppose there is any person upon whose mind the care of suicidal persons has borne more than upon mine. I have studied it from every side; and I do not think it is well to put these patients all together, to add to the gloom of their thoughts, and to encourage the habit of introspection that is constantly overcoming them. Rather would I put them among others; and I always do put them in associate dormitories with other persons, or otherwise watch them. I take them, in fact, upon the individual basis. There are two things to be considered here. The patient may accomplish his work, and therefore requires much vigilance to prevent him. The other is that that vigilance may increase the trouble by fixing the patient's thought upon it. Overcome the thought by other occupation is the only permanent relief for the suicide.

The Committee on Time and Place reported as follows:—

If any proof were needed of the growing popular interest in and appreciation of the annual sessions of this body, it could be found in the many cordial invitations extended to it from all sections of our country to hold its meetings in some representative city thereof. Your committee, at its final session, Saturday night last, had formal and hearty invitations from Omaha, Neb., Rochester, N.Y., Chicago, Ill., Hartford, Conn., Nashville, Tenn., Raleigh, N.C., and St. Paul, Minn. The last place has patiently and assiduously been a suitor for this Conference's annual session for some three years past, and this time came with an invitation at once indicative of unusual local interest, and of careful preparation to render it effectual. The chairman of the Minnesota delegation, one of the largest sent by any State, presented the resolution of the Minnesota State Board of Charities and Corrections, unanimously passed at the quarterly meeting held May 6, 1885, inviting the Conference to meet in St. Paul in 1886. His Excellency

Gov. L. F. Hubbard sent an autograph letter, tendering to the Conference the use of the capitol and expressing his earnest hope that it would honor the State by deciding to hold its next annual session there. Accompanying this resolution and letter were letters from the mayor of the city, and copies of resolutions cordially seconding the invitation adopted by the St. Paul Chamber of Commerce, the Board of Trade, the Historical Society, the Board of Education, the State Historical Society, the trustees of the State institutions at Faribault, the Board of Common Council of the city of St. Paul, and a letter from the president of the State Reform School. It was further claimed that the coming of the Conference to Minnesota would benefit the entire North-west, aid in shaping institutional legislation in that great section, and arouse public sentiment in reference to the grave subjects which are discussed by this body. The two great cities of St. Paul and Minneapolis, representing an aggregate population of over 225,000, and marvels of growth and enterprise, will really be the hosts of the Conference; while the great province of Manitoba and the city of Winnipeg will become interested in the proceedings of the meeting. For these and yet other reasons, the committee, with the utmost good-will and grace, voted unanimously to select St. Paul as the place for the Annual Conference of Charities and Correction for June, 1886, and accordingly submit this recommendation to the Conference, trusting that this decision will be cordially and promptly confirmed.

Mr. Mills hoped the Conference would accept the invitation to North Carolina, and urged that the South needed the help that the Conference could give more than did the West. Col. Beasley also spoke in behalf of the South. Mr. Hatcher thought the South needed the enlightenment and encouragement that this Conference could give. Mr. Anderson also thought the South should receive a visit from the Conference. After a little further discussion, it was voted to accept the invitation to St. Paul, with the thanks of the Conference, and that the time of meeting be not earlier than the 20th of June.

Adjourned at 12.20 P.M.

SEVENTH SESSION.

Monday afternoon, June 8.

The Conference met at 2 o'clock, the President in the chair.

The report from the State of Connecticut was read (page 33).

D. W. Ingersoll read a short account of the State Reform School of Minnesota (page 283).

Mr. BICKFORD, of the Associated Press, read the following telegram:

Williamsburg, Va. At twelve o'clock last night, the right wing of the central building of the Eastern Lunatic Asylum was destroyed by fire. The buildings burned comprise the original ones of the institution, erected over one hundred years ago. There were two hundred female patients in the burned buildings;

but all were rescued save one, who was burned to death. Another patient, after being brought out of the building, wandered away, and was found this morning drowned in a creek near by. All the female patients were taken to William and Mary College, where they were temporarily cared for. The other wards, containing nearly three hundred male patients, were quickly emptied and the patients turned loose; but they did not wander off, being generally tractable. The total loss is estimated at from one hundred and twenty to one hundred and forty thousand dollars, insurance about forty thousand dollars. The cause of the fire is supposed to be some trouble with the electric light wires.

A paper was read by Dr. Edward Hitchcock on "What the College may do to prevent Insanity" (page 116).

Dr. Richard Gundry, of Maryland, read a paper on "Non-restraint in the Care of the Insane" (page 123).

Dr. W. B. Goldsmith, of Massachusetts, read a paper entitled "The Care of the Insane at Home and Abroad" (page 136).

A paper by Dr. Stephen Smith, of New York, on "Care of the Filthy Classes of Insane," was read, in his absence, by title (page 148).

Dr. W. B. Fletcher, of Indiana, read a paper on "Insanity and Lunacy Laws" (page 154).

Dr. A. G. BYERS and Dr. J. W. WALK offered the following resolution, which was referred to the Business Committee:—

Whereas the subject of schools in our hospitals for the insane has been presented for the consideration of this Conference,—therefore,

Resolved, That this subject be respectfully referred to the National Association of Superintendents of American Asylums, with the request that, if, in the judgment of said Association, the introduction of schools would be promotive of cure or comfort of patients, some expression of this judgment be formulated in suggestions of proper organizations and methods of such schools.

Resolved, That Dr. John B. Chapin, chairman of the Committee on Insanity of this Conference, be requested to bring the foregoing resolution to the attention of the National Association of Superintendents.

DISCUSSION.

Mr. WRIGHT. — Dr. Goldsmith merely alluded to the placing-out system of Scotland. He could tell us much more about it. The time is coming when something of that kind can be done here; but, if that system should ever be established, there should be medical supervision of it. A skilled physician should travel through the State. As to transporting female insane patients, in Wisconsin we have provision for the sheriffs to have a woman with them. They should be brought by skilled attendants. Have a woman for this purpose, who can be summoned at any time by telegram.

Dr. HITCHCOCK. — In Massachusetts, we have officers that always attend to that. We have a female migration officer, and no woman is moved to an asylum without a female attendant. There is no

written law on the subject, I think; but I am quite certain that patients cannot be brought into our hospitals by any employé of the hospital. I have known instances where, after the patient was brought to the door and assistance was needed, the doctor in charge would furnish none. He said the patient must be brought into his office by people from outside.

Dr. GUNDY.—I feel very earnestly about bringing patients to the asylum. Virginia and several other States have tried the process of sending out attendants to bring patients from their homes, and they have invariably regretted it. The law of Ohio provides that the patient may be accompanied to the hospital by friends, and, in the case of a woman, always attended by a woman. I think that is a very right safeguard for a patient. I will take no part in bringing a patient to my hospital. I do not wish to be prejudiced in his or her mind by having a part in bringing such patient. I have not even ever helped a patient out of the carriage, and never intend to do so; and I would never delegate any one from my house to bring patients in. I have many a time cut the bonds in which they were brought, but the friends must bring them to me before I will take charge of them. To send out attendants to bring patients would lead to great abuse. Are attendants trained to judge who should be brought and who not? I think we expect too much from attendants. An attendant is good in proportion as he obeys the superintendent. The superintendent should be the brain, the attendants the hands. They are paid for that. They are the companions, not the rulers, of the patients; and that should be carried out outside the institution as well as inside.

My good friend, Dr. Hitchcock, dwelt on physical training, and how much that has to do to increase life and happiness, and to prevent insanity. Yet I think Winship the strong died young; and old Neander, who disobeyed every law of life, lived to be eighty-two. Dr. Fletcher says that people shall not marry if they have a taint of insanity. Will you give up all the legacies that have come from that source? Will you let Heine go, whose parents were both insane? Will you give up John Todd, whose mother, from his birth, was insane? Will you cut yourself off from all the legacies that brilliant though perverted intellects have given to the world? You would lose a good deal. We owe much to those who may be termed insane people, and I am not sure it is altogether an act of charity to use them well: it is only returning a part of our debt.

Dr. WALK called attention to the work of Dr. Alice Bennett in the hospital for the insane at Norristown, Pa., commending it very highly.

Miss COUZINS expressed the hope that more might be heard of women's work in this direction.

Dr. JENNIE McCOWEN said that in Iowa no female patient is taken to an asylum without a woman in attendance, unless she is accompanied by her husband or father or brother. In Iowa there are, also, lunacy commissioners in every county. If patients or their friends are dissatisfied with the results of the commission, they have liberty to appeal to the court any time within ten days.

Mrs. DINSMORE thought the Conference ought to discuss the cause of insanity. Is it climate, is it bad food, is it tobacco, is it liquor, is it isolation? A large proportion of the inmates of the Nebraska Insane Asylum is made up of foreigners, chiefly Norwegians and Swedes. Another element is from the extreme limits of the State, men and women who live in dug-outs, holes that they have made in the side of a hill, leaving the hillside as a roof. Dampness and darkness and isolation are the doom of the pioneer who lives in one of these shelters. They have no proper food, no care in sickness, and are often twenty-five miles from the post-office. The women do not see the face of another woman once in six months. These are the women who come into the insane asylum of Nebraska.

Judge OGDEN said that he believed in employing women physicians in insane asylums, but the trouble was to find enough who are properly fitted for such work.

Dr. McCOWEN.—It is probably true that few women are qualified for positions on the medical staff of hospitals for the insane: there are comparatively few men. That there are not more women is due partly to lack of opportunity, partly to lack of incentive. In some instances, where women have received appointments, the duties assigned them have not been professional at all, but clerical; in others, their opportunities for obtaining knowledge and proficiency in the specialty have been limited; in others, when promotions were in order, with increase of salary, fresher tyros have been passed over their heads, because they were women. Still others, for the same reason, have been subject to social proscription. So long as the inducements to enter this specialty operate so unequally as between men and women, it cannot be regarded as strange that few of the latter, and these not always the most capable, should seek to gain the experience which alone can qualify any one to deal with insanity.

Dr. BYERS.—Dr. Gundry wants women employed as physicians, not as women. I have every reason to believe he is right. If he employs a female physician, he ought to be able to send her into the male ward with as much confidence as among the female patients.

Mr. BONSALL.—The day is not far distant when women doctors will take their place in the ranks without any regard to sex, but for skill and intelligence in the particular line which they select. There is no reason why women should not be as well fitted to treat the deep-seated diseases of the mind and of the body as men.

The following resolution, offered by E. P. BRADSTREET, of Ohio, was referred to the Business Committee:—

Whereas the nation's capital should be, and is in many respects, a model city for public institutions, whence the American people may obtain useful information in erecting local asylums, reformatories, etc.,—

Resolved, That this Conference respectfully but earnestly urge the next Congress to make proper appropriations to erect and equip a work-house for adults, and a reformatory for youth of the District of Columbia, which shall meet the above requirements, and be worthy of the great and beautiful city of Washington.

Resolved, That the members of this Conference press the matter upon the senators and representatives of their acquaintance, until this object be accomplished.

Adjourned at 5 P.M.

EIGHTH SESSION.

Monday night, June 8.

The Conference met at 7.30 P.M., the President in the chair.

A letter was read from Thomas James, of New York, chairman of the sub-committee on Postal Savings Banks, asking the members of the Conference to give full and careful consideration to this humanitarian undertaking, the establishment of postal savings banks. He assured the Conference of the "painful and urgent necessity for this simple and yet efficacious form of relief on the part of the government; and that, in order to secure prompt and satisfactory action on the part of Congress, it was imperative that organized preliminary work should be undertaken, and a proper expression of public sentiment assured."

The following resolution was then offered by Mrs. JOSEPHINE SHAW LOWELL, and by vote was referred to the Business Committee:—

Resolved, That this Conference heartily approves of the proposal to establish Postal Savings Banks in this country, and recommends to its delegates to bring the subject to the attention of the members of Congress of their respective States, in order to secure their support of the measure at the next session.

A paper on "Prison Discipline," by George W. Hall, of the Philadelphia Society for Alleviating the Miseries of Public Prisons, was read by the Secretary (page 301).

The subject for the evening was Idiocy. The report of the Standing Committee on Provision for Idiots was made by the chairman, Dr. I. N. Kerlin (page 158).

James B. Richards, of New York, one of the earliest teachers of feeble-minded and idiot children, was introduced, and made an address (page 174).

President Garrett called on Mr. Z. R. Brockway, Superintendent of the Elmira Reformatory, to open the discussion on Idiocy.

DISCUSSION.

Mr. BROCKWAY.—Something that may be called imbecility lies at the foundation of a vast amount of crime, and I should be very glad if some of these experts would tell us the relation of imbecility to crime. I think it is a mistaken notion, formulated by Dr. Ourt of

Pennsylvania, that the education of prisoners equals the average education of the masses. That has been satisfactorily controverted. The prime cause of criminal conduct, if not arrested development, is undevelopment. I think any man who has undertaken to grade the prisoners of a prison establishment closely and accurately will have found a residuum that may be called imbeciles; a very small one perhaps, varying in amount in different prisons, but nevertheless a residuum great or small.

Three years ago this summer, I had fifty sifted out of six hundred young men not imbeciles, but of the lowest type we have, and subjected them to a training not at all so thorough or so wonderfully interesting as that to which we have listened to-night. But we took the fifty, and employed a professor from an art school to teach them manual manipulation,—not for the purpose of producing anything, but for an experiment, to see the effect on the minds of working their hands at some mechanical process. The teacher commenced the first evening with complete indifference among the whole fifty. He gave to each a ruler, a pencil, and a piece of paper tacked to the drawing-table; and they were instructed to draw a square of six inches. Only a few were able to accomplish it. Quite a number were unable to measure off the inches upon the ruler. On the next evening, a greater interest was manifested; and, in a very short space of time, the whole company could mark off a square. Then some lines were drawn, then some simple scrolls put in; and, by and by, in the course of a few weeks, the teacher was out on the lawn gathering leaves of different kinds, and distributing them, and at the blackboard showing them how to make a design for a tile. A large number, I should say fifteen out of the fifty, incorporated the leaf into the square, so that it was a design for a tile that could be moulded in clay. I shall never forget one man—a man, not a boy—who had every appearance of being a criminal, who had been subjected to previous prison discipline, who incorporated his bit of vine in a unique and beautiful way into his tile. He was of the convict type; but, when he had completed his work, and the teacher said it was very good, his face changed, his eyes were suffused with tears, and emotion was expressed on all his features. That man became very expert at designing. He improved wonderfully in his capacity as a moulder in the iron foundry; and to-day, after three years only, he is on parole, married respectably, and is foreman in a foundry, at a salary of fifty dollars a month and his board. Only two or three out of the fifty were not aroused. At the end of the year, I asked the board of managers to let me put in some instructive industries, which was done, although a conservative member thought it all nonsense to teach art to prisoners. These fifty men went on from the lower classes to the higher, and more than half of them into the elementary classes of the upper division. I want to put a large number at instructive industries; and the legislature of this year has made an appropriation of \$20,000, to erect instructive shops, and we propose to extend the system to all who need it. This shows the value of manipulation for the quickening of the intellect of the lower type of

adults as well as juveniles, and a field of reformation and education that has not yet been ploughed.

Dr. RICHARD GUNDRY, of Maryland.—I have always looked upon those persons who enter upon the work of training the feeble-minded as the most tenacious and persevering of mankind. But we never know what we can do until we try. Because one system of training may have failed for the class alluded to by Dr. Kerlin, I can hardly believe that there is no way of training such persons out of their criminal propensities, of repressing these and strengthening other qualities; that all education will fail with them. We say that a person has an inaptitude for certain things. Macaulay claimed that he could not work a mathematical proposition; and yet, if you will read his life, you will find that he never really worked out a problem, because he trusted to his prodigious memory. Henry Martyn, believing that he had the same lack, for years committed his mathematical studies to memory, but, feeling that he was not doing his duty, set to work and studied till he came out as *first wrangler*. This shows that men make mistakes as to themselves. May not teachers mistake as to the aptitude of their scholars? Education is a contest against our hereditary qualities, the overcoming of the evil propensities within us and the development of the good. I cannot help thinking that, by some change in the method of training, the difficulty alluded to may be overcome. I am encouraged by reading in a report from Barre of a case somewhat analogous, in which a child with the strong intellectual power of acquiring knowledge bent all his force toward wrong purposes. Dr. and Mrs. Brown took him in hand, and by carefully repressing the tendency to study, and developing him gradually in the paths he disliked to tread, finally developed his moral nature. Gradually, he was allowed to return to his literary pursuits, and finally came out a well-balanced young man. In a letter of the great Cavour, he tells how disgusting it was to be put to the study of agriculture after leading a purely intellectual life. But, by persevering therein, he gradually found that he developed the better qualities of his mind. I cannot help believing that there is more to learn in this field, *that the problem can be solved*; and I know no one more equal to the task than the men who are devoting themselves to this good work.

Dr. J. Q. A. STEWART, of Kentucky.—I wish to correct an error in the report of the chairman on Provision for Idiots. It is stated therein that the laws of Kentucky will not permit the inmates of the Kentucky Institution for the Education and Training of Feeble-minded Children to remain longer than ten years. That law was repealed two years ago, and there is now no limit. This matter is left to the discretion of the board of commissioners and the superintendent. A child receives instruction as long as it is possible to improve it.

The Kentucky Institution was the first to establish a system of industrial training, making it a special feature of instruction; and, so far as I know, it is the only one in the world where most of the common trades are taught. The object is to instruct all the chil-

dren who are old enough in some useful occupation which will ultimately fit them for self-support. And, as some of them are much more apt than others, it was evidently unwise to limit them to any particular number of years. For instance, a little girl, received at six years of age (the lowest age at which a child can be admitted) would, according to the law then in existence, have to be sent away when she had become sixteen years old, evidently at a time when she was most susceptible to industrial training. Now take the case of a boy who is within a day of eighteen years of age (the highest limit at which a child can be admitted): he could remain until he was twenty-eight years old, when, in all probability, half the number of years allowed him would be sufficient for all the instruction he could receive. On these grounds, the law was repealed.

The Kentucky Institution does not receive low-grade idiots or epileptics. They are provided for otherwise. Only feeble-minded persons of proper age and susceptible to improvement are admitted.

This makes it possible to teach the larger portion of them such industrial occupations as will enable them to support themselves when they are dismissed from the institute. As a result, the Kentucky Institution has now on exhibition, at the Exposition at New Orleans, a large number of useful articles made by the children, representing their proficiency in many of the trades, and showing conclusively that a large number can be made self-supporting. It is the only exhibit of the kind in the world. And it is of sufficient merit to have been sought by the Japanese government, to which country it will be shipped.

Rev. Dr. DANA, of Minnesota.—I think we may congratulate ourselves on the progress of this, the latest born of all our charities. When we remember the opposition and unbelief it at first encountered, I think the report to which we have just listened should fill us with great gladness and gratitude. I do not imagine we have as yet overcome all the prejudices and doubts of the average citizen of the various States in reference to this imperative work. He does not appreciate its importance simply in its preventive aspects. Already, in Scotland, they are about to adopt the plan of gathering all imbecile children into institutions and keeping them therein, that they may not at least propagate their kind, and that society may thus be protected from their increase. Then, if we look at another phase of this work, bearing in mind at the same time the impressive pictorial story given us by Mr. Richards, we shall learn a lesson that never should be forgotten by any of us; namely, that those who stoop the lowest to serve the most unfortunate of human kind, not only do the most good, but, by a divine law, get the most good. Dr. Guthrie of Edinburgh, Scotland, affirmed as his belief that there was not a child in God's great family beyond the possibility of reformation and the saving influences of kindly instruction. It only requires that we put our whole hearts into this work of reclaiming and uplifting, welcoming the inspiration a divine faith will surely supply. I have been permitted to stand at the cradle of our school for imbeciles, to watch its progress and note the changing public

opinion in Minnesota, till the humanity and practical character as well as urgency of the work have now come to be generally acknowledged. I wish also to bear my testimony to this fact: that I never came in contact with a class of devotees so full of enthusiasm, so gifted for their difficult and delicate duties, so inspired with a lofty trust in God, and so full of faith in the improbability of this class of dependants, as those engaged in work in their behalf. More than this, I have never met women more consecrated and versatile than those I have found in the schools for this afflicted portion of humanity's family. Women who are fitted to adorn any position, competent to undertake any work to which charity invites, fascinated, seemingly, by the lowly, tasking toil of developing intelligence and habits of self-help in these hitherto despised and neglected children. In their care and teaching, they exhibit the same patience and tact, the same compassion and hope, which Mr. Richards illustrated before us in the chapter he gave from his own experience. We had the honor of sending to the New Orleans Exposition specimens of the handiwork of those in our State school, and received approving words from observant critics for its excellence. I think we may well feel grateful to Almighty God, whose love has inspired this great work, and whose providence has directed and blessed it. We have reason also to be proud of the devotion and heroism shown by those who are laboring in this department of charitable effort. There is no institution in our State that interests me more than our Imbecile School at Faribault, nor one in which I get more helpful suggestions for my own work. Every Commonwealth ought to see to it that this class within its borders is immediately cared for, and all that skill and kindness can do to improve its condition be done at once. This is humanity's demand, and economy and mercy unite in urging the most generous provision for these wards of the State.

HON. JOHN EATON, of Washington, D.C.—If I know anything in education, I am especially indebted, and have been for the last thirty years, to the teachers engaged in teaching those who are most defective by nature,—the feeble-minded, the blind, and the deaf and dumb. If you will come down to the Bureau of Education,—and I can assure you you will all be very welcome there,—you will find a collection of 16,000 volumes and 40,000 pamphlets, representing the process of educational literature the world over. But, if you were to go through these books, if you were to go through the works on psychology in all languages, where would you find a discourse on psychology more instructive than the one to which you have listened this evening by Mr. Richards? I go to Superintendent Brockway every chance I can, to study his methods. He works on the principles described by Mr. Richards. I also go into the juvenile reformatories whenever I can. Wherever they are a success, they work on the same principles. A great many are failures, I am sorry to say; but, where they succeed, the same principles underlie their operations. I say to Mr. Brockway at the end of the school year, "Well, what are the lessons for this year that you have derived

from your experience?" After careful thought, he says, "We all met, teachers and superintendent, and discussed that proposition; and one of the first things we agreed on this year was that these people are deficient in the mathematical faculty." Now, what will the general public say to a conclusion of that kind? I have no doubt it is true, as a rule; but there is no time to reason about it here. But what parent should not know the philosophy that underlies the work in the school for idiots? Have you a child paralyzed in any nerve, where can you go to study how to deal with that paralysis as you can in the school for idiots? I have seen our friend from Ohio bring out girls with paralyzed limbs, and have a beautiful dance, while an idiot band furnished the music. We do not know this power of education. We do not know what it may accomplish in youth before the powers become firm and fixed and crystallized, and unchangeable in form. We do not know its possibilities. This discussion, these views, teach us, at least, as has been expressed in another form, that no being on whom God has impressed the form of man is to be neglected.

HENRY M. DECHERT, Esq., of Philadelphia.—As one of the managers of the Pennsylvania Training School for Feeble-minded Children, it may seem unnecessary for me to add anything upon the subject; but my experience may be of value to some one else. Many have an idea that the work of training these children is disgusting, and that it is trying to the nerves and sensibilities; but these views would be changed, if they could spend a few hours in that school, and hear the instruction given to two hundred and fifty or three hundred children. Ladies of the first intelligence and the finest education teach these children with good results. The very helplessness of the children appeals naturally to the womanly heart. We have in that institution 479 children, representing every grade and class; but there is no one, from the able superintendent down to the lowest of the attendants, who has a doubt as to the fruits yielded constantly to the devotion of those carrying on the work. Many of these are brought to the institution to simply shield them from the exposure and misfortunes of life, not because they are criminals.

No child under the age of eighteen who has been placed in this world with a mind defective from birth, or from early misfortune, can be properly classed with criminals. No: they are placed in the institution, to shield them and to protect the community, and by far the larger number are capable of receiving some education. We find that about two-thirds of the imbecile and idio-imbecile classes are benefited by instruction and can from time to time be advanced in the school-rooms.

Mr. PICKETT, of Kentucky, thought people ought to thank God and take courage on seeing how much is now done, not only for the feeble-minded, but for all classes of defectives. The work of the men and women who go down to the lowest intelligence, and develop the modicum of mind that they find, he thought were doing a work almost divine. They are supplementing the work of the Creator. Such work must lead to a higher civilization.

Mr. BARBOUR, of Michigan.—I think, if we could have had Mr. Richards to labor with the legislature of Michigan, we should have had an institution for the feeble-minded by this time.

Dr. Kerlin introduced Mr. J. K. UCHIMURA, from Tokio, Japan, who made a brief address as follows:—

Ladies and Gentlemen of the Conference.—It is with considerable diffidence that I, a new visitor from heathen Japan, should stand here before you in this metropolis of the enlightened Republic; but, trusting in the spirit which has drawn you together, I humbly ask you to allow me to pour out my hearty sympathy for your work, as a partner in your Christian spirit and love, if not in your blessed work itself.

Much has been said and written about Japan within these few years. As a new-born nation upon the face of the earth, it is spoken of in very high terms all over the world. Indeed, for a hermit nation to rise from its semi-barbarism to its present state of progress and civilization in a little more than quarter of a century is not a very common thing under heaven. Yes: in her activity in lifting up her people, and in her susceptibility to all that is good and useful in the civilized world, she is not ashamed, I think, to be called "the Yankee nation of the Pacific."

But the time has come, I believe, when she should examine herself a little. She should see whether, blinded by too much success in her material growth and puffed up by her intellectual precocity, she has not been backward in looking after her widows and orphans. That progress is incomplete which does not include the heart. Bayonets and iron-clads are poor indices of a nation's strength. God's promise for permanent strength is not to a people which trust in "horses and chariots because they are many," but to a nation which "visiteth the fatherless and considereth the poor."

I thank God that I can be here this evening among this honorable band of Christians. Japan has been represented in many of the political, social, and scientific conventions of the world; and I consider it a privilege to represent her in this Conference of charity, where heathens and Christians, Romanists and Protestants, can shake hands. It is interesting and useful to examine the politics, administrations, armies and navies, commerce and manufactures, of the different nations. But only by looking into the real *sentiments* which govern these nations, and into their outcome in works of charity shown for the poor and destitute, can we distinguish the Christian form of civilization from the heathen. On an occasion like this, I must not make any personal references. But I wish you to understand that neither the government nor the people sent me here for such a purpose. I came by myself, prompted by an inner impulse, and driven by the Divine Providence. My feeble frame and my humble position in society forbid me to do much in this honorable work, but I commend the cause of my suffering countrymen to God; and if, by this short appeal, I succeed in calling forth your

sympathy for the poor and unfortunate of the nation I represent, and some measures be taken in future days for their relief, I count the visit to this country well repaid.

Adjourned at 10.15 P.M.

NINTH SESSION.

Tuesday morning, June 9.

The Conference met at nine o'clock, the President in the chair. Prayer was offered by the Rev. J. B. Cotter, of Minnesota.

A paper, by F. H. Wines, entitled "Sentences for Crime," was read, in his absence, by Mr. Hart. This paper, having been distributed in pamphlet form by its author, is, at his request, omitted from the present volume. The following is a very brief abstract of the positions taken: Mr. Wines began by defining what is known as the "indeterminate" sentence, which he contrasted with time sentences, and traced the history of its evolution through Whately's conception of a task sentence and Maconochie's "mark system." He stated the argument in opposition to time sentences, long or short, pointed out their inequality, and showed the impossibility of apportioning punishment to guilt. He explained the significance and force of Recorder Hill's antithetic phrase, "reformation or incapacitation," and referred to the admitted distinction between corrigible and incorrigible offenders, for whom different methods of treatment are indicated. The indeterminate sentence finds more or less justification and support in the sentences, during minority, passed upon juvenile offenders, and in the good-time laws applicable in our penitentiaries. In its last analysis, it is the conferring upon prison officers a discretionary power inherently appertaining to legislatures, but, in fact, vested by them in courts. Notwithstanding the force of the argument in its favor, Mr. Wines was not prepared to advocate it, since public sentiment is not prepared for so radical an innovation in criminal jurisprudence; and he doubted the possibility of finding prison wardens to whom it would be safe to intrust such enlarged powers. Conditional liberation, as practised in England, he would favor; and he regarded the New York statute, under which the Elmira Reformatory is operated, as embodying the principle of the ticket-of-leave, but not, properly speaking, of the indeterminate sentence, which is merely an ideal. If the indeterminate sentence is, as it appears to be, a sentence for life, produced against a misdemeanor equally with a felon, it would seem to him

to be a violation of that justice which he regarded as the basis of the criminal law. Neither did he believe that the indeterminate sentence, or any sentence, had inherent power to bring about the reformation of any prisoner, which can be accomplished in no other way than by personal influence of the right sort.

The report from the District of Columbia was made by Mrs. Sara A. Spencer (page 39).

Mr. LEWIS ABRAHAM, of the District of Columbia, explained that the large amount expended by the District of Columbia for charities the past year was spent, in part, for building and replacing old, worn-out, and dirty places. The industrial school which he represented received no income from the labor of the inmates. All such money is paid into the treasury of the United States. The children earn about \$100 picking strawberries, but that has all to be turned into the public purse. About \$700 was earned by selling tree-boxes, which the children make; but it must go into the same treasury.

Mr. NEFF concluded his report as acting chairman of the Committee on Reports from States by saying that reports had been received from thirty-five States and the District of Columbia. For the gathering and preparation of these reports, the Conference was indebted to Mr. Wines. The order for the day was the report of the Committee on Preventive Work among Children. The chairman of that committee, Hon. William P. Letchworth, read a brief report (page 179).

A paper, by Dr. W. T. Harris, on "Compulsory Education," was read by F. B. Sanborn (page 228). A paper by Mrs. Sarah B. Cooper, of California, on "The Kindergarten as a Character-builder," was read by Miss Phœbe Couzins (page 222).

DISCUSSION.

Mrs. DEANE thought formation of character was of more importance than reformation. Ignorance, idleness, and intemperance are the three great evils to be contended with. If children could be educated to industry and to purity of character, many of the causes from which they now suffer would be overcome. All children, whether rich or poor, should be taught to work.

Dr. BYERS said that he was a great admirer of the kindergarten and of the kitchen garden. He thought they met a wide demand; but, if they were to take the place of the home nursery training, he feared grave results might follow. Home and family training is the best for children. Where, however, parents are indifferent to the relation between childhood and parentage, something else must

be provided. If they are so devoted to the world, to fashion and frivolity, that they neglect their children, a kindergarten is far better than such a home for a child. The system of kindergartens should be brought into use for the children that have no homes or that have indifferent ones. They will meet a great social demand, and ought to be encouraged.

Mr. GOTTSCHALK said that in Kansas City many of the children cannot go to the kindergartens, because those of a suitable age have to stay at home and care for still younger ones while their mothers go out to work. By taking several families living near together, he had been able to teach some of these children himself, and to amuse them by pictures and papers, and in this way reach a few that the kindergarten could not reach.

Dr. WALK wished to reply to what had been said by Dr. Byers. There was no danger of the kindergarten ever withdrawing children from the proper amount of parental control and instruction. The sessions last only three hours, from nine to twelve. This absence from home will rather give to the mother a much needed rest. The kindergarten is particularly adapted to the children of cities. In country places, little children have a good deal of industrial training which they find for themselves. They soon learn the habits of the creatures about them, and all this is a useful training. It develops their observation and memory in many ways. The making of mud pies is a sort of modelling in clay, and a first lesson in cooking. In the city, a child can do none of these things. To make mud pies is to block up the sidewalk, to obstruct the highway. They cannot have even a dog or a pig or chickens. What is a city child to do? Here the kindergarten with its games and occupations comes in; and the child is not only trained, but is saved from mischief.

Mr. JOHNSON said that no one in Cincinnati could send his child to kindergarten without a heavy strain on his purse. The important question was how it can be made a part of the public school system.

Mr. REEVE said that all animal life craves artificial excitement, and all true efforts at reform should seek outlets for this craving where it will do good and not harm. The kindergarten has solved that problem. It satisfies the craving for this excitement in its earliest development, and in such a way that the child is helped, not hindered by it.

Miss HALLOWELL wanted to say a word on the kindergarten separating the children from the home. She had had some experience in Philadelphia, with children from the alleys and the streets. These children are invited to the kindergarten, not to separate them from home influence; for the influence of the kindergarten upon the home is a part of the work that it has to do. The mothers of these children are often very hard-worked, if perchance they work at all. They are frequently beggars upon the streets, indolent, sometimes vicious, women who do not care for their children in any tender way, and quite as often neglect them. Their children are brought up on the curbstone. Yet these mothers are frequently won over to the good influences of the kindergarten. The children go home and

tell what they have learned. If they are treated roughly and told to do things in a harsh way, they say: "You must say please, mother. We must say please, in the kindergarten." One little child said to her teacher one day, "I say please to the milkman now." These homes are purified, made better. The children are taught morality and responsibility to a higher power; and these influences go to the homes, and the homes are lifted because of the kindergarten. It is one of the most powerful factors that may be used in the prevention of crime and pauperism. The kindergartens of Philadelphia are not yet connected with the public school system. The time seems not to have come. If a kindergarten society could be formed in such towns as have none, a large number of children could be protected, and a basis for valuable work be laid.

Miss SMITH said that Mrs. Shaw's kindergartens in Boston were considered very valuable, not only by the people who carry them on, but by the Associated Charity visitors and those interested in the families of the poor, because of the good manners and the cleanliness which come into the homes from their influence. As for the children who attend the kindergartens where a fee is charged, instead of their coming from homes where the mothers neglect their duties, the mothers are usually the exceptionally good mothers of the neighborhood, who not only do the best themselves for their children, but are anxious to bring the best influences possible to bear upon them. No one mother can do everything for her children.

Mr. FOSTER said that in their school, in Coldwater, Mich., they had had the kindergarten but a short time. Before it was introduced, the boys and girls, many of them, never knew what to do with their hands. Since the organization of that school there had been a marked improvement in that respect, especially among the boys. They know how to use their hands. They can pick up their caps, and walk off like gentlemen. On another class of children, that on entering seemed so stupid as to be apparently feeble-minded, a new era has dawned. They seem to have a new interest in life. They are changed radically, and he thought the brightening up is due to the kindergarten training.

Mrs. D. H. JOHNSON. — In Milwaukee, we have eight kindergartens in connection with the public schools; and as soon as the wards have a sufficient number of children and the necessary accommodations there will be more established. The wards are thickly populated where the schools exist, and the accommodations are not sufficient to take the children all at one time: a part go in the morning, and a part in the afternoon. There is also a training-school, a branch of the normal school, for kindergarten teachers. If any city wants kindergartners, it can get them in Milwaukee. There is also a charity kindergarten that takes care of young children while their mothers go out to work. These children are sometimes also provided with clothing. Instruction is given in cleanliness, and in that way the homes of the lower class are improved.

Mrs. LOWELL. — Kindergarten training is of immense value in large institutions, supplementing, as it does, the lack of detail knowl-

edge that comes naturally to children in all but the poorest homes. Its importance in this direction is incalculable. Every institution for children where there are as many as thirty inmates under seven years ought to have kindergarten training for them, for the sake of both the mental and moral influence it exerts.

Mrs. DINSMORE. — Such is the appreciation of the kindergarten in the West that a plan is now before our Board of Education in Nebraska to establish kindergartens in connection with our public school system in Omaha, as also a manual training-school.

Mr. BEASLEY. — While we have not a kindergarten in North Carolina, I wish to indorse all that has been said of the good effects of kindergarten training. It teaches what ought to be taught to the youth of America, — obedience, deference, industry, cleanliness. If there is a duty that as parents we owe to society, it is to begin as soon as the minds of children are susceptible to impressions to teach the lessons that will be of use hereafter. I conceive that there is no higher duty than forming the minds of youth for the battle of life. It is the ill-training of youth that too frequently gives us the contemptible characters that are scattered through society.

Mrs. SPENCER. — A child that has had a kindergarten training has the key to all the arts and sciences; and, in after years, it is a perfect delight to teach such a child.

Miss MEREDITH. — In Norristown, Penn., Dr. Alice Bennett has a kindergarten for the insane. It develops their dormant faculties, and gives them a new interest, and in some cases an absolute zest for life.

Mr. WOLF believed that, if millions were spent in the kindergarten as an adjunct of the public school system, it would save the expenditure of the millions now spent for reformatories and insane asylums. A kindergarten training would help to do away with the overcrowding of children's minds, which is so prevalent and so injurious. The cast-iron rules of the public schools, that are indiscriminately laid on the minds of the children there receiving and forming their first impression, lay the foundation for physical and mental disease. The kindergarten system instils that love of the beautiful, of obedience, and of every virtue, that is necessary to make perfect men and women. It should not be a paid system nor a charity system, but part and parcel of those institutions which are for the purpose of developing everything that is necessary to make this country still more prosperous. It contains every element of education, reform, and culture. It is for this Conference not only to sit and listen to admirable papers, but to say that the kindergarten system, in its opinion, should be an adjunct of the public school system; and the sooner it is done, the better.

Miss COUZINS called attention to the admirable work of Miss Blow in St. Louis. She regarded Miss Blow as the mother of the kindergarten in this country, and was happy to pay her this tribute.

Mrs. LOUISE POLLOCK asked permission, in this connection, to make a report of the Free Kindergarten in Washington, which was as follows: In making a report of the Free Kindergarten and Nursery

Maids' School in connection with the Associated Charities of this city, it may be interesting to show what efforts have been made for the opening of such an institution since 1880. Washington is, in some respects, under great disadvantages in its charitable work; for the District has no local government, and has to look for Congressional action for nearly everything. The people, though charitably disposed, are apt to look to Congress for help, which, experience has proven, is not easy to obtain.

In 1863, I first studied into the kindergarten philosophy, and adopted it in bringing up my own family of children. I then made up my mind to extend its benefits as much as I was able, especially after noting its excellent results in Mr. Nathaniel T. Allen's Classical Institute in Massachusetts, in 1864.

In the year 1880, Gen. Garfield, whose child received kindergarten instruction from my daughter, presented my first memorial to Congress, petitioning for an appropriation for a free kindergarten in connection with the public schools. The members of Congress on District business, to whom the memorial was referred, consulted the District Commissioners, who replied that, although the object had their approval, they were not prepared to recommend it yet. They were at that time urged to use their influence for the establishment and building of a high school. In 1881, Senator Harris presented in the Senate the same petition, approved by the superintendent of the public schools, Mr. J. Ormond Wilson; but it met with no better fate. In 1882, Senator Ingalls presented a memorial asking for the establishment of a free kindergarten training-school for teachers, with model kindergarten, which should be also used at certain hours for the free training of nursery maids and free lectures to mothers and governesses, on the best methods and means for the bringing up of young children. This petition was signed by the highest educational authorities from fourteen different States of the country. No better result following, I thought it best to follow the advice of Mrs. Rutherford B. Hayes, and start a subscription list for the support of a free kindergarten.

The first year, the income was \$920.85, which, with careful management, left a balance of \$387 toward the maintenance of the second year of the free kindergarten opened Feb. 12, 1883, in St. George's Hall, and the Nursery Maids' Training School. But the second year the generous contribution of \$500 from a friend was not repeated, and only \$300 received altogether; while this year, thus far, we have had only \$200 income from subscriptions, and it would have been impossible for me to continue this free kindergarten work, if the secretary of the Associated Charities, Mr. L. S. Emery, had not kindly allowed us the use of a fine large room from September, 1884, until April, 1885, in which to carry on both institutions. One hundred and twelve children have been in our care since we opened this free kindergarten, and seventy ladies and nurses have attended our free lectures on infant training.

The free kindergartens for colored children are progressing well. The board of trustees of the Miner Normal School fund for the edu-

cation of colored youths appreciate the value of the kindergarten system, as a powerful means for preventing idleness and crime, and include the kindergarten for the little ones and the kindergarten training for the normal scholars in their expenditures. But there is no provision whatever for the little ones of poor white people in this city, excepting what I have been instrumental in providing in a very helpless and imperfect manner, for the lack of a regular income. I have just sent a communication to the school board, asking them to request the Commissioners that the new school buildings should have each one room provided for a kindergarten; for, after the Associated Charities' offices were removed to smaller quarters, I knew not what to do with my free kindergarten, six weeks before it was time to close it for the summer vacation.

The first floor of the building where I have my National Kindergarten Institute having just been vacated, the proprietor, a noble woman, whose kindness far exceeds her means, allowed me to move them in there until some one should hire the premises, when again the free kindergarten will not know where to lay its head. Fortunately, Miss Elizabeth Cleveland, the present lady of the White House, who is very much interested in all noble and charitable work for the amelioration of suffering humanity, has expressed much interest in the kindergarten system for training children, and, in a letter lately received, desired me to represent this branch of preventive work at this noble Conference; and I feel sure that the one free kindergarten for white children will not be allowed to be given up for the lack of a shelter.

Mr. GILES, chairman of the Business Committee, submitted the following report in behalf of that committee:—

The Business Committee, having considered the several matters referred to it, submits the following report:—

It has not been the practice of this National Conference to formulate ideas into platforms; but it has taken such broad ground that all, of whatever sect, creed, or party, could freely unite in an interchange of thought and expression of opinion. Our aim has been, and is, to unite the social, moral, religious, and political elements of society in one organization, to promote the uplifting of humanity. We grant the widest range of individual opinion, and invite the widest discussion of the various questions that come before our meetings. To promote and secure harmony in our widely extended organization, we set no metes or bounds to the fullest discussion of any subject. Our measure of success, and the standing already gained as a National Conference of Charities and Correction, are a matter of great pride.

While the members of the committee might each and all indorse the propositions submitted, we yet feel that their adoption by the Conference might be taken as a precedent for the introduction of questions purposely to disturb and divide the earnest workers in

our ranks. We therefore report upon the subjects submitted as follows:—

First, that the resolution of Mr. Abraham, relating to reformatory and industrial schools, etc., in the District of Columbia (page 432), be referred to the Executive Committee, with a recommendation that it collect facts and statistics, and report to the next Conference; that the resolution of Mr. Bradstreet, of Ohio, relating to workhouses in the District of Columbia (page 443), take the same reference and receive the same consideration.

Second, that the resolution of J. L. Baily, relating to intemperance and crime (page 426), be referred to a committee of three, with Mr. Baily as chairman (page 473), to collect statistics of the leading causes of pauperism and crime, and report to the next Conference.

Third, that the resolution of A. G. Byers and J. W. Walk, relating to schools in our hospitals for the insane, be adopted, and that the petitions and memorials relating to that subject be also referred to Dr. John B. Chapin, to be by him laid before the Association of Superintendents of the Insane.

Fourth, that the resolution of A. O. Wright for the appointment of a committee on federal prisons (page 431) be in part adopted, as follows:—

Resolved, That a committee, consisting of Gen. R. Brinkerhoff, F. H. Wines, and G. S. Griffith, be appointed, to take into consideration the subject of federal prisons and prisoners, and report at the next Conference.

Fifth, that the resolution of C. H. Reeve, relating to the establishment of inebriate asylums (page 435), be referred to the Committee on Provision for the Insane to be appointed by this Conference, with a recommendation that it give the matter due consideration, and report to the next Conference.

Sixth, that the resolution of Mrs. Josephine Shaw Lowell, relating to the establishment of postal savings banks (page 444), be adopted.

The report was adopted.

Adjourned at 12.15 P.M.

TENTH SESSION.

Tuesday afternoon, June 9.

The Conference met at two o'clock, the President in the chair.

The subject of Preventive Work among Children was resumed. A paper by Mrs. Mary A. Du Bois, of New York, on "Thirty Years' Experience in Nursery and Child Hospital Work," was read in her absence by Mrs. Lowell (page 181).

A paper by Mrs. Clara T. Leonard, of Massachusetts, on "Saving the Children," was read in her absence by Mrs. Spencer (page 191).

A communication was read by the Secretary from Mrs. A. F. Newman, asking permission to bring a greeting to the Conference from the National Women's Christian Temperance Union, in the name of its president, Miss Frances Willard. Mrs. Newman was invited to the platform, and in a brief address conveyed the greetings of the Women's Christian Temperance Union, with the request that the Conference would send a delegate to the meeting of the Union to be held in October. She also gave the greetings of Mrs. J. K. Barney, superintendent of jail work.

The work of this department of the Union is to provide libraries for jails, to arrange Sunday services, to secure the appointment of police matrons in jails and police stations. The matron attends the police courts, makes a record of every woman convicted, ascertains her history, if possible, and finds employment for her on her release either in families or under supervision. Mrs. Newman also presented to the Conference, in the name of Miss Jennie Cassidy, an invalid lady of Louisville, Ky., a floral offering, as a remembrance of her (Miss Cassidy's) birthday, which she celebrates by sending flowers and Scripture texts to the hospitals, jails, reformatories, and prisons throughout the country.

On motion, it was voted to appoint Mrs. Newman a delegate to carry the greetings of the Conference to the Women's Temperance Union.

DISCUSSION.

Mrs. SPENCER, referring to Mrs. Leonard's paper, said it seemed passing strange that the father of the nameless child is not assessed for the support of the child, in Massachusetts. The State carefully provides that four dollars a week, or ten dollars a month, shall be assessed upon the women of the State; and the father goes on his way, making more victims. Although the District of Columbia can learn much from Massachusetts, yet, in this respect, she has made farther progress. The public sentiment of the District, especially of the women, is largely in favor of holding the father responsible for the child until it is able to take care of itself. As to another point in the paper, Mrs. Spencer thought it would be very difficult to get places in families for women with babes in their arms. She had found it so, when trying to find employment for such mothers.

Dr. WALK wanted to speak a word in defence of the conscience of Massachusetts. That Commonwealth is anxious to punish both parties in guilt, if they can be found; but that is not always possible. As to the care of unfortunate children, there can be no question that the *mothering* of a good woman is the best thing for the baby. But it does not follow that that desideratum can always be found by placing a child in a family. Sometimes, a country poorhouse, where

there are only a few babies and a few old women, with nothing else to do but take care of them, is a very good substitute during the years of babyhood. That does not apply to the large city poorhouses, where numbers of children are put into cribs and set in rows, and left to themselves. If homes for babies are to be found in private families, in which those babies are to be kindly treated, and where they are to be received with motherly love, it will require the very highest ability, the greatest enthusiasm, and the most extraordinary devotion in the ladies and gentlemen who are going to find those homes. It cannot be done by hirelings. There must be an amount of individual wisdom and personal, heartfelt interest, which is so rare that for that reason, and that only, he questioned whether Mrs. Leonard's admirable plan could be generally introduced. If it cannot, we must rely upon institutions.

Mrs. WHARTON.—The first idea of the Children's Aid Society of Philadelphia (an outgrowth of the Society for Organization of Charity) was to provide homes in private families, through "a temporary boarding-out system," for the waifs of the city and State. When, however, the office was opened, it was soon beset with young unmarried girls, with babes in their arms; and it was found that to care for these infants, by giving heart and hope to their often despairing mothers, must become an important branch of its work. This was done by seeking homes, mostly among the respectable farm-houses, which abound near Philadelphia, where the mother might learn to be a valuable assistant to the often overburdened head of the house, receiving lower wages, of course, on account of the child, which, in turn, would have the advantage of beginning its early life in the country. When the natural relation of the child to its mother is thus established, it is not considered to be under the care of the Society, though both are always at liberty to seek its advice and protection, when needed. Through the solicitor of the Society, the father is sought, and, when possible, brought to a sense of his responsibility, and his help secured for the support of his child. Of the ninety women thus placed last year, we know of only two who have gone back to evil ways. Fifty are doing well. The remainder have from time to time come back for change of place, which is again and again found for them; and they are in a fairly hopeful way.

During the month of May, 1885, the Children's Aid Society and Bureau of Information found situations for thirty women with children, placed fifteen children in families, three in hospitals, and found boarding-places for twenty children. Information or advice was given one hundred and eighty times, involving the care of ninety-five children. Eleven cases were referred to the superintendents of organized charity. There were seventy new applications, fifty-five of which were for children, and fifteen for women with children. There were also two cases of adoption.

Judge FERRIS.—In Tennessee, we tried to protect the woman in such cases as have been referred to, but failed as usual. There is no difficulty in finding homes for children. I keep my advertisement about placing children standing all the time. I have over fifty

applications ahead now. The children go into good homes. You know that is my hobby,—homes. Everybody ought to have a home, and a home without a baby is a poor home. There are thousands of them; but, if you can touch the hearts of the people, they will open their doors, and take in the little ones. But, frequently, these children are meddled with after they are taken into families. Who meddles with them? Often, those who pretend to be Christian people. They begin by saying, "Why, Mrs. Jones, do you know the history of that child?" What does it matter to Mrs. Jones what its history is, so long as it is God's child? That is enough for her to know, and to know that it needs her love and protection. The least we can do is to give these innocent children a good character. I could point out many a man who is a bright gem in our State, who was taken out of the poorhouse; and there are thousands more who to-day might have been men and women, if they had had a dog's chance.

MR. BEASLEY.—It seems to me that the proper course to pursue in this matter is to go direct to the fountain-head. If we, as American citizens, are willing and determined to purify society, we should go to that point that will prevent illegitimacy, by making the act of seduction, when established, constitute the child a legitimate and full heir to the father. It is a shame and disgrace that men elected to make laws for our guidance and protection are always willing to do anything to promote their own selfish ends; but, when it comes to protecting the virtue of our homes and of society, they quail at what may be the results, when they go back to their constituents. The foundation of government should be purity. If our legislators do not make laws that will purify society,—for, by purifying society, you purify the State,—the proper policy to pursue is to band together as pure men, and elect pure, upright men to make the laws. You may talk about illegitimacy and your foundling asylums as long as you please, but you will not remove the cause of one nor the necessity of the other till you let it stare a man in the face that, if he is guilty of becoming the father of an illegitimate child, that child becomes legitimate by his very action.

DR. HOYT.—The object of all effort, public or individual, in dealing with abandoned and homeless infants, should be to preserve life and rear them in health. There are three modes open: first, by placing them in families by adoption; second, by placing them out to board in families; third, by placing them in institutions. Where an infant must be left to the care of another than its natural mother, the best substitute is the foster-mother, who takes it and rears it at her home without compensation. The worst care, and that to be most deprecated, is that which places infants in families for hire. I believe there is no greater destruction of infantile life than in placing them out by boarding. In institution care, you have two modes: one, that of the asylum established specially for infants; and the other, the public almshouse. I have had large observations of the county almshouses of New York, and I want to bear my testimony that there is no place outside of the care of the foster-mother

that furnishes care to homeless infants equal to that which they receive in these institutions. In connection with these almshouses, there is always an abundance of good, pure, and wholesome milk, which is an important item in rearing a motherless infant. There are also in them large numbers of aged women, many of whom have been mothers, whose time and attention are devoted to the endearment and care of these infants. It is just as necessary in preserving infantile life that it should have this endearment and attention as that it should have proper food. The mortality in institutions established specially for infants has always been fearful, and in many instances has brought scandal on those connected with them. But I would remove the infant from the almshouse very early, before it had reached an age to feel the influence of its surroundings, and place it in a family or an asylum.

A paper by L. P. Alden, of the Rose Orphan Home of Indiana, entitled "The Shady Side of the Placing-out System" (page 201), was then read by Mr. McCulloch, in the absence of the writer.

A paper was read by Mrs. Virginia T. Smith, of Connecticut, on "The Work of the Temporary Homes and of Finding Homes for Children in Connecticut" (page 210). The discussion was then resumed.

DISCUSSION.

Mr. CALDWELL thought the method of trying to get rid of crime by attacking the adult criminal was like trying to restore a tree to health by binding up the branches, when the real trouble was in the root. The way to get rid of pauperism and crime is to take care of the children, and to begin with them as early as possible. As John Plowman says about breaking a colt, "The work will thrive, if you start before he's five." Not only the children, but the homes need reforming. Great difficulty had been experienced by him in finding suitable homes for children, when they were ready to be sent out from the institution.

Miss MEREDITH thought that the idea had not been sufficiently emphasized that, in placing children in homes, the Creator's plan was more nearly followed: it is the more natural life for the child, and in the long run better results will follow. When children have been in institutions till they are sixteen years of age, and stand at the door of human life and must go out into it, they do not know what to do: they do not know how to take care of themselves. With reference to taking children out of the poorhouses, experience in Pennsylvania showed that, by taking the children out, it took the mothers, too. They were not willing to be separated from their children, and managed in some way to take care of them. Miss Meredith believed that a bad home was almost better than any institution.

Mr. LETCHWORTH said it must be remembered that, in deciding the merits of the different plans, there were two classes of children to be cared for, the delinquent and the dependent.

Mr. FOSTER.—I am sorry that Mr. Alden is not here: he would be delighted to know the excellent results of the system. During the eight years of his superintendency, nine hundred children were placed in homes. One of my first duties was personally to visit the children in those places. As a result of that kind of work, fifteen hundred children had gone from the Michigan Public School: there is no guess work about that. I found that, out of all who had gone from that institution, ninety-three per cent. were doing well,—in homes supported by families, or grown up and self-supporting. But seven per cent. of all that had ever been placed out ever relapsed into crime or pauperism. In the reports of the last year, ten per cent. of the children were in school over eight months, forty per cent. over six months, and ninety per cent. the full amount of their indenture contract, showing in one State, at least, that there is a reasonable opportunity for education for children that are placed in homes. The Michigan State Public School is an institution with 1,400 cottages: 1,390 are scattered about the State, with one child to each; and the officers of the institution go just as freely into the 1,390 as they do into the other ten at Coldwater. They look after the individual welfare of each child; and, when they find one abused or lacking care, he is at once removed and placed in another home. This may be "sickly sentimentality," but we believe that the results justify it. I believe that self-sacrificing men and women are doing good in institutions, but I do not believe that the best managed institution in America is equal to a home for a child. I want to say a word in defence of the common homes of this country. It is from common homes that we have all come; and it is from these homes that applicants for children come, and they are good places in which to put them.

Mr. GRIFFITH.—From my own observation in Maryland, I am in favor of placing children in good Christian homes rather than keeping them in institutions until they are twelve or fourteen years of age. By such strict seclusion, they become awkward, inefficient, and unprepared to battle with the world. In the year 1860, in visiting the city and county jails, we found small children, from eight to fourteen years of age, incarcerated within the walls. We saw very plainly that this was only preparing them to enter the criminal ranks. Consequently, two other gentlemen and myself met to consider what could be done with such children, and decided that we would organize a Children's Aid Society; and no institution in the city of Baltimore, I may say, has accomplished more than this in caring for young delinquents. The name has been changed to the Henry Watson Children's Aid Society, in honor of the late Henry Watson, who left \$100,000 to endow the institution. It has received under its care 2,052 children. These were committed by the courts and magistrates. Perhaps three or four hundred were placed there on account of drunken parents or from destitution. From the whole number, 1,739 have been placed out in the State of Maryland, some in Pennsylvania, and some in Virginia. After the children are placed in these homes, our agent, William C. Palmer, whom we elected in the beginning, makes it a point to visit them. He receives letters every

month either from the children or from those who have charge of them.

Mr. BULL.—It is with some hesitation that I speak of a society of which I am not a member, but I wish to call attention to a few features of the State and county work of Pennsylvania. The Children's Aid Society was founded two years ago. Owing to its efforts, the State legislature passed an act, which went into force in January, 1884, which required all children in the almshouses not crippled nor idiotic to be placed within sixty days in an industrial school, an institution, or in a private home. Four months after the law went into effect, I found by the report of the Board of Charities that the number of children in almshouses was reduced from 1,054 to 715, a reduction of 32.1% per cent. The Children's Aid Society acted on the home plan. In Chester County, we determined to form a society of our own, based on the principles of the Children's Aid Society, except that it should be local. One other county has followed our example, and eight have formed branches to the main society. One objection that has been made here to the placing-out system is that the children cannot be visited more than once a year. That is not the principle of the Children's Aid Society of Philadelphia. The children are properly supervised. When I listen to "The Shady Side of Placing-out," and hear Mr. Walk speak as he does, I feel some hesitation; but, after all, I cannot see that they have said one word against the home plan in and of itself. They criticise its workings, but not its principles. When I see a Conference like this, that has not come together to debate matters of expediency, but with great ideals, I say it is incumbent upon us, idealists as we are, not to lower our standard for any sake of expediency, but to see where the fault lies, and apply the remedy. I believe it lies just here, in *personal supervision*. Our Chester County Society receives quarterly reports as to the condition of the children, while our visitors are obliged to visit the children in person once every month; and it is an absolute condition that the persons taking the children shall send them to school a certain number of months. Our visiting is done, not by paid agents, but by intelligent women; and it is the women who are going to make this plan a success. Let me tell you what has been done in one county, because, if it can be done in one community, it can in another. We had fifty-two children in the almshouse at the beginning of the year. Of these, nine were taken out in January, because the parents did not wish them to be removed. They went back to their villages, and proved that they could take care of themselves. Forty-one were thrown on the society. One lady found homes for more than thirty within a month. One has been adopted, one has been sent to the House of Refuge, one has died, fourteen are indentured, and eighteen are in temporary homes; and I think we are in a fair way to solve this problem.

Dr. BYERS called attention to the fact that from the orphan asylum of Cleveland, Ohio, one hundred children are annually placed in good homes. Such close scrutiny is exercised in selecting homes that over eleven hundred applicants for children were rejected in one year.

Mrs. LOWELL.—Charity workers ought to consider the effect of their actions, not only upon the few persons whom they see and help, but on the hundreds and thousands whom they do not see. We may be doing good to a hundred people, and at the same time injuring ten thousand, of whom we know nothing. The thing that may be best for one person in trouble, with whom we are brought in contact, may produce indirect results which will bring much greater trouble to numbers of others. And this is true of all kinds of charity, and is a fact which should never be absent from our minds. We must study the *final results* of our actions. In relation to the care of dependent children, I feel sure that the best thing for the individual children, and also for the community at large, is the boarding-out system, if you can get the right kind of women, as they have in Pennsylvania and Massachusetts, to see that the children are properly cared for. *With adequate supervision*, the children themselves will be much better off in common average homes than in institutions; and the effect on the whole community is much better in every way. Parents will not give up their children to be boarded out, unless they are driven to the step by real necessity, while they have not the same objection to putting them in institutions, which therefore tends to multiply the number of dependent children. And children brought up in institutions are not fitted for common, every-day life, do not develop the energy that makes life a success, so that, having once been dependent, they continue so. It is a curious fact, but I believe that no woman here has spoken in favor of institutions. It is the men who have defended them; and men cannot know, as women do, what is best for a child. My own disapproval of institutions dates from my experience as manager of a very good one.

Dr. HOYT.—I am confident that I am misunderstood. I have not said one word in favor of institutions for the care of children over that of the family, except poorhouses as contrasted with foundling asylums. What I protest against is the placing of children in families for board. It is educating the community up to a point that it will not take children without pay, and the system is liable to great abuse.

Mrs. RUSSELL.—I believe, unless a woman has it in her heart to make a child her own, that she will take but little care of it. It is a mere business arrangement, where the child is put to board; and the woman feels no responsibility for exercising motherly care.

Mr. BULL.—We have only eighteen children in temporary homes. The rest are indentured or in the process of being so. I agree with Dr. Hoyt in feeling that we must get permanent homes, or the whole plan will be a failure. We have no trouble about that, when the child arrives at the age of indenture.

Mr. BRADLEY.—The comparison seems to be drawn between a Godless institution and a perfect home. But I hold up both hands for Christian training in an institution *between* the street and the home. We need both. If our institutions are not what they ought to be, we should make them better.

Mr. GRIFFITH.—We are very careful in reference to the homes in which we place children. In Maryland, we have a local committee

in every town ; and, when any one wishes for one of these children, and makes application, that application is referred to the local committee. The character of this family is then ascertained, to see whether they are good Christian people. We also make restrictions about the moral and religious training that the child shall receive. Out of 1,752 children that have been placed, the record shows that eighty per cent. have turned out well, and not a single one — notwithstanding the fact that three-fourths of them were committed by a magistrate and courts — has ever been seen inside of a jail or penitentiary, so far as we know ; and the result of the work of this institution is really remarkable.

Mr. JACOBS.— I have been simply amazed, as I have sat here, to hear the reflections on institutions. My idea is that an orphan asylum should be the purest, sweetest, best home for a young boy or girl on the face of the earth ; that the superintendent, teachers, and matron should be as loving as father, mother, brother, and sister to every child committed to their care ; that they should be their friends, advisers, and companions. I know at least one orphan asylum where that is the controlling spirit,— Thornwall Orphanage, in South Carolina. I know that the children are better off there than they would be in the best home in which I could put them.

A DELEGATE.— Is that a State institution ?

Mr. JACOBS.— No : it is not, although some of the children are criminal. The whole idea is to take the children and train them, so that they may go forth, new men and women. I have been connected with it for ten years. My idea of an institution is that it should be a place that children love, and where they should learn to depend on themselves. When you speak evil of institutions, do not class them all together.

A DELEGATE.— At what age do you admit children ?

Mr. JACOBS.— From five to nine, and we dismiss none till the age of eighteen.

A DELEGATE.— What provision is made for children under the age of five ?

Mr. JACOBS.— Outside of Charleston, none.

Dr. DANA.— It has not been the intention of any one to stigmatize the institution. I think we feel mutual respect for the work that we are all doing. Those who are placing children in homes are doing it from the best principles. We do not believe that institutions are unnecessary, or we would not come together to study the best methods of carrying them on. Those who carry them on are earnest Christian men and women. But, at the same time, do not say what has been said here indirectly and impliedly about the homes of America. There are, undoubtedly, some bad homes ; but do not, for heaven's sake, rate the homes that need reforming, as one speaker did, as high as nine out of ten. If our homes go down, everything is gone. God never placed the institution before the home.

Mr. MILLS.— Some years ago, I met a farmer at a hotel, who said he had come to town to get a boy from the asylum ; that he was

going to give him a home and an education, and teach him how to be useful. "What do you mean by giving him a home? Are you going to make him your heir?" I asked. He looked at me as though he thought me a fool. "What do you mean by giving him an education?" I continued. "I mean I am going to teach him to work." "All the farmers have been getting boys out of the asylum?" I asked. "Yes." "Well, did you ever know of any of those boys being sent to school?" "Well, if they have been, I never heard tell of it," was his reply. "What do you mean about teaching him to be useful?" "As useful as I can about a farm." And that was all. I know that there are good homes and good places, but we in the South find it exceedingly difficult to find them. It happens that nine-tenths of those who apply for children are our worst people, not our best. So long as a man is connected with an institution, he cannot go about the country and get the truth. We have got to bring public opinion to bear on these homes, and make a man feel that, if he maltreats an orphan, his neighbors will frown on him. We have got to have a better type of Christianity in these homes before the children will be properly cared for.

Mr. BEASLEY.—I do not know any one in my State to whom the State owes a deeper debt of gratitude than to Mr. Mills, for his magnificent conduct in regard to these matters. It was through his energy that the finest orphan asylum in the State was brought to its present perfection. But it is a mistaken idea that these orphan asylums are all that is needed in the care of helpless and dependent children. Take it in my State and in the State of North Carolina. Children are admitted to the orphan asylums between the ages of five and twelve. If it is a serious duty to provide a home for those from five to twelve, is it not a stronger duty to take care of those from five to the cradle? That is the question we have to decide. This home system, I do believe, is the only way in which we can provide for those from five to the cradle. Those are the ones that starve or die for want of a mother's care. Hence there is but one place where they can have proper care. I believe that for every homeless child there is a childless home. It is our duty, as Christian people, if we cannot provide asylums for them, to devise some plan by which we can find homes for these little orphan children.

The following resolution, offered by Mr. SIMON WOLF, was referred to the Business Committee:—

Resolved, That it is the sense of this Conference that the system known as "Froebel's kindergarten" should form a part and be an adjunct of the public schools.

Adjourned at 5.40 P.M.

ELEVENTH SESSION.

Tuesday night, June 9.

The Conference met at 7.30 P.M., the President in the chair.

A paper was read by F. B. Sanborn, on "The Prevention of Pauperism" (page 402).

A paper was read by C. Richards, of Washington, on "The Charities of the District of Columbia."

The subject of the Prevention of Pauperism was discussed, as follows:—

DISCUSSION.

Mr. SKINNER.—I have been much pleased with the report of the work that has been done in the District of Columbia. We do not need any statistics to show that pauperism is decreasing. It is not possible for such a body as this to exist for ten years, disseminating knowledge about charity, how to give and what to give, without its having an effect on the current of pauperism. We have established it in the minds of a great many people that it makes a man a beggar to give him a dollar without his earning it; that there is a great deal of charity that makes more misery than it relieves. We have obtained a better knowledge of the effects of charity, and that not all assistance assists; that sometimes, instead of assisting, it deprives the person of the power of self-help. The crowning glory of this Conference is that it has taken steps to stop the beginning of pauperism. Many years ago, I recollect hearing Gen. Brinkerhoff say that this society should not sleep until dependent and poor children could be taken from the poorhouses, and brought under the sunshine of a genial family home; and I rejoiced as I heard the reports here from State after State that that time has come and is coming.

Mr. BULL.—I have heard very little here about the tramp question. I was invited to prepare a paper on that subject; but, as I looked at it, I found that it opened up such a tremendous field that it would have been an act of presumption for one man to attempt to cover it. But I wish to give you what I consider a few of the causes of *trampery*. I divide these into subjective and objective causes. To the first belongs an aversion to labor,—an aversion, let me say, not peculiar to the pauper tramp, but common to wealthy young men, who spend the money, made by honest work on the part of their fathers, in travelling through Europe, as our poorer vagabonds wander along country roads. Second, the lack of proper home training and discipline, which fosters idleness and shiftlessness, and deters young men from learning a trade. I need not enlarge upon this subject; for I am glad to say that, if there has been one aspect of this Conference that has pleased me, it is the prominence given to the necessity of home training in saving the nation, by beginning with the children. The far too common idea among a certain class, that manual, physical labor is degrading, especially when encouraged

by political demagogues for selfish ends, is another cause of trampery; while still another is the ease with which the tramp can eke out a living through the miscalled charity of the general public, especially farmers, and the fear of revenge in case of refusal. In my own county, one of the richest and most intelligent in Pennsylvania, we fed nearly seven thousand tramps in our trampoline last year; while, in the adjoining county, within the first three months of this year, one thousand asked to be received in the county jail, that they might freely drink their coffee, eat their bread, and smoke their pipes. The fifth cause is due to eras of great productive activity, causing men to leave their homes and flock to great centres, succeeded by periods of depression, in which they are obliged to seek for work without success. Men are tempted, under such circumstances, to fall into vice and to commit crime; and I am sorry to say this leads to the fact, which I believe to be true, that tramping is not only on the increase among our foreign population, but among our own American youth. Sixth, trades unions, that interfere with the rights of those who do not belong to them. Lastly, the lack of true sympathy and community of interest between the employer and the employed, which I believe to be one of the chief sources of the difficulty. The combined subjective and objective causes of trampery are such as should appeal not only to this Conference, but to the political economist and the sociologist as well. I hope you will thoroughly sift this subject, and speak out your minds. The time has come when we, as Christian men, must recognize that there is a demand upon us from the lower classes, that labor has its rights as well as capital, and that the elements of truth and justice in communism and socialism have claims we would do well not to ignore. The eradication of this evil appeals to me, and should appeal to us all, not only as humanitarians and as philanthropists, but as patriots. All the other subjects we have been discussing — idiocy, prison reform, pauperism, the training of children — would appeal to me equally, were I a German, a Frenchman, or an Englishman; but the tramp evil comes home to me peculiarly as an American. I feel it to be a blot, a stain, on our American institutions. I hope the time may come when I can say to my grandchildren, if they come across the word in some old book, and ask its meaning, that "a tramp was a species of the genus *Homo*, once peculiar to America, who lived by begging from place to place, and did not work because he would not, but, owing to the efforts of the philanthropic men and women of that country, has happily become extinct. The word is now obsolete." In closing, I offer the following resolution:—

Whereas it is the sense of this Conference that the tramp evil is rapidly assuming such proportions as to make it imperative that some means should be devised by which the evil may be eradicated,—

Resolved, That the whole subject of tramping and vagrancy, with special reference to its effects in rural districts, be referred to the Standing Committee on Pauperism, for a thorough examination into its causes and for suggestions as to its remedy. The result of the same to be reported to the next annual Conference.

The resolution was referred to the Business Committee.

Mr. ROSENAU.—We had an experience in Buffalo last winter, not with tramps, but with a colony of Poles that had come over in the summer. They could find no work; and, as soon as the weather became severe, they went to the poor master. We also went to the poor master, and insisted that he should give no able-bodied men relief, but told him to send them to us, and we would give them some work. We gave them work at levelling the snow, at a rate below the usual compensation. We think those men will not care to come again for relief, if they know it can only be obtained on condition of their working in the streets, with the thermometer below zero. And they will let those at home know that gold cannot be picked up on the streets in America, as many of the people suppose; and that relief cannot be obtained from the poor master, unless one pay an honest day's labor for it.

Mr. LOCKWOOD.—I am satisfied that the most important step for the cure of pauperism will be to abolish what is known as "out-door relief" in our cities. The practical effect of this system is to solicit dependence and create paupers. The amount expended in my own city of Cleveland has been reduced from \$125,000 to less than one half that amount by the efforts of the Organized Charities. More than half of the recipients were found to be frauds. I am glad that our State Board of Charities recommends giving up out-door relief. Two large cities, Brooklyn, N.Y., and Philadelphia, having abandoned it, their experience fully justifies all that was anticipated. The Bethel Associated Charities can guarantee that no needy citizen shall suffer, if Cleveland will close its doors to such relief and the citizens will refuse to give to strangers at their homes. This reform in the administration of the poor laws is essential; and we must agitate the matter until it is accomplished, and indolence be no longer encouraged by anticipating relief from our municipal treasures.

Judge SNELL.—It would be very agreeable if these Utopian ideas could be carried out. But, although you might put such a law, abolishing out-door relief, on your statute-books, it cannot exist in fact; and it ought not, to. The question arises, How can we reach the true policy? After you have made your proper investigations, and have found individuals worthy but suffering, you must give them such relief as will tide them over their necessities, place them on their feet, and enable them to live an honest life. Send all your tramps to the workhouse, if you please, but never cut off any honest and worthy man from receiving just and proper relief when he is suffering. I believe in the District of Columbia we have reduced this to about as fair a condition as you could expect. We have been laboring on this idea for several years. The Associated Charities are entitled to the credit of having entered upon this field of investigation and registration faithfully, honestly, and sincerely. In the central office, we have an officer who has worked years without a cent. The visitors have travelled these streets during all the coldest weather without compensation. Their work has been done quietly, but efficiently, and in a

noble spirit. Too much honor cannot be given to the ladies engaged in this work. The District of Columbia appropriated only \$2,000, by the record which I took from the commissioner's book, for out-door relief, for a population of 203,000. I do not believe many cities can show a better record than that. Our Associated Charities appropriated twice as much in finding work and giving relief to worthy people, not to tramps. I stand pledged to that idea.

Mr. SANBORN.—People who use the term "out-door relief" must use it, if they would be logical, in but one way, and not a dozen. Out-door relief means relief from the public treasury to people who do not go to the poorhouse.

A report was read by Dr. Charles S. Hoyt, of New York, chairman of the Committee on Immigration (page 407).

DISCUSSION.

Dr. DANA.—Dr. Hoyt asks for inspection under federal authority, so that criminals and insane persons shall not be landed on these shores. I want to say that this is a very vital question to us, even in Minnesota, for the reason that many immigrants pass the seaboard without inspection, having through tickets. They arrive in western centres perfectly unfit to be received anywhere but in the poorhouse. Our only relief is what has been suggested,—federal inspection that shall be uniform and free from all partialities and local prejudices. We do not at all object to *immigration*, for that has been the source of our wealth and the condition of our growth; but we do not want lunatics and paupers. We do not want immigrants landing at St. Paul whom we have to take directly to the poorhouse or asylum. We ask that something be done like what has been suggested,—inspection at the ports at which immigrants land, whether ticketed through or not, so that we may be protected as well as New York and Boston and other ports.

Dr. GUNDRY.—I wish to note two or three points in criticism of the report. The objection is made that a large proportion of immigrants who come at the present day are feeble-minded, criminals, etc. Of the criminals, I have nothing to say. I confine myself entirely to those supposed to be feeble-minded. When you have eaten the better part of your apple, you want to throw away the rest. Or, if you make a contract for the purchase of a certain amount of goods of mixed quality, when you have received the best, you wish to throw out the other. The families who have come here, and by their own energies helped to build us up as a people, left at home the weak and feeble, and supported them, perchance, there; and now, when trouble overtakes these feebler ones, you say they are not to be permitted to come here. That, as I understand it, is the proposition. However statistics may seem to bear you out, I think there is a fallacy underlying them. I enter, therefore, a caution against too implicit a reliance upon them. When you say that there are so many of foreign birth who are insane, you should consider how many of the

same family and from the same country have contributed to the increase of the sound portion of the community. You are paying now the debt you owe to Europe. At first, the robust came over, giving us the advantage of their hands and brains; and now the weaker ones are coming. I am sure I do not appeal in vain to the generosity of all Americans, when I ask whether they will begin a crusade against the weaker ones, after having absorbed their natural supporters.

MR. HART.—It is not the intention of Dr. Hoyt, or of any one, to object to people bringing over their dependent relatives, but to the shipping of paupers that are paupers at home. A young man came into Otter Tail County awhile ago without any relatives, but in charge of certain immigrants from Sweden. They stated that the young man's father was well-to-do. He had purchased a ticket for him to Minnesota; but he was a pauper from the day he landed, and dependent on the county. This was exceptional, but it is one of a number of cases that have come to us within a year or two. We only ask that we may have protection against the deliberate shipment by the authorities, or by unwilling friends who do not want to support their dependent, of those who come here only to become paupers. We ask for the same protection in the interior that is given on the seaboard. Dr. Hoyt is exactly the man to suggest the needed remedy. We are willing to support our share which *necessarily* comes with the influx of population.

DR. HALLOCK.—I was examining physician for one year at Castle Garden, and in that time I was supposed to examine 266,000 persons. Of course, my examination could not be very exact. I was expected to pick out all the insane, the idiots, and persons likely to be a charge to the public. So far as the insane were concerned, I was able to detect very few. An insane man is not always easily recognized, as those of you will admit who think it necessary to bring a person before a jury, and examine witnesses to ascertain whether an individual is insane. I only mention this to show that the question which Dr. Hoyt raises is a really practical question. How are you to find out what persons are going to be chargeable to the public? It is not possible without a very large force of examiners. If it is possible, it ought to be done. But these chargeable cases are, after all, only a fraction of the entire immigration.

DR. HOYT.—The federal government has taken advanced grounds on the question of immigration, and the legislation of Congress upon the subject is being enforced by the Department of State. The report assumed that we should carry out the spirit and letter of the Act of 1882, and pointed out certain imperfections in its administration, and suggested changes designed to remedy existing evils; but it makes no war upon legitimate immigration. Any man who, by his industry and energy, can reach our shores should be permitted to land. But it is clearly our duty to protect the country against deported lunatics, imbecile, and other helpless alien paupers, who go direct from the steamships to our asylums, poorhouses, and other institutions of charity, as permanent dependants. The attempt,

on our part, to land an insane person or pauper in Germany, Great Britain, or other European country, to burden the public, would be stubbornly resisted. And there is no valid reason why we should submit to the imposition of these helpless classes upon our benevolence, deported for no other purpose than to rid the community whence they are sent of the annoyance and expense of their maintenance and care.

TWELFTH SESSION.

Wednesday morning, June 10.

The Conference met at 10 A.M., the President in the chair. Prayer was offered by the Rev. H. R. Naylor.

A supplementary report of the Business Committee was made, as follows:—

The Business Committee makes a supplementary report on the resolution respecting the introduction of kindergartens in the public schools, and recommends the appointment, by the President of the Conference, of a special committee, to collect information and report to the next annual session on the general subject of kindergartens.

In accordance with that resolution, Miss Anna Hallowell of Philadelphia, Miss Susan E. Blow of St. Louis, and Miss Laliah B. Pingree were made such committee.

The Committee on Causes of Pauperism and Crime, called for by the resolution of Mr. Baily, was announced as follows: Joshua L. Baily, of Pennsylvania; Dr. Charles S. Hoyt, of New York; and Fred. H. Wines, of Illinois.

The President announced that farther discussion on the subject of immigration was in order.

DISCUSSION.

Mr. BEASLEY.—I am from a State—North Carolina—that does not suffer particularly from the importation or admission into this country of improper persons; but believing, as I do, that it is the duty of every citizen, regardless of State lines, to give his voice, assistance, and influence to every movement calculated to prevent injury being sustained by any of the thirty-eight sister States that make this great government, I wish to express my approval of the report of the Committee on Immigration, and to indorse it in every sense of the word. The people of this country, by the Congress of the United States, should prevent the landing of persons not likely to become good and useful citizens. The United States has in most of the countries from which these immigrants come a large number of consuls, who virtually have nothing to do. It seems to me one of the wisest policies to be followed by the government, to prevent

the bringing into our country of improper persons, would be to compel all immigrants to bring from some one of our consuls a certificate of their mental and physical capacity to earn a living and maintain themselves here. Our trouble is that we have too much freedom. We allow too many people to come; and, if we go on at this rate, sooner or later the native citizens of America will have to call a halt, and they may then realize that the day for checking improper immigration is too far gone. I wish to offer a resolution that I hope will not be referred to the Business Committee, but that it may be passed by the Conference. If we cannot, after twelve years' experience in the work of charity and labor among the insane, idiotic, and desperate characters that Europe has cast upon us, have the courage to ask Congress to pass a resolution to prevent farther injury to us, it seems to me that we have not really commenced work.

Resolved, That the Conference of Charities and Correction earnestly appeals to the Congress of the United States to enact, and have rigidly executed, a law which will prevent the landing in this country of insane, idiotic, convict, or pauper immigrants.

The PRESIDENT.—The Act of Aug. 3, 1882, provides that such immigrants shall be returned without charge.

Mr. BEASLEY.—But it imposes no penalty; and, hence, I say that Congress should enact a law, and rigidly execute it. How will you do that? That is for Congress to decide. It seems to me that there should be a penalty imposed.

Mr. LETCHWORTH.—In respect to the plan of authorizing our consuls to issue certificates to persons about to emigrate from foreign countries, a plan I have long favored, it appears to me that, if the way was opened for an immigrant to procure, at the port from which he sailed, a certificate from the American consul, setting forth that, in the judgment of the consul, the applicant was mentally, physically, and otherwise a suitable candidate for American citizenship, such a certificate would be an additional safeguard, and do away with the necessity of a critical examination on arriving here. Our consuls have the means of ascertaining the antecedents of immigrants, and can determine much better than an examining officer here whether a person is a chronic pauper or an incorrigible criminal. While abroad, in 1879-80, I conferred with a large number of our consuls and some of our foreign ministers respecting the immigration of paupers and criminals, and found them possessed of a more intimate knowledge of the subject and its abuses than I had supposed. I think, if duly authorized, it is in their power to almost wholly arrest this great evil.

Mr. BEASLEY.—If the law went so far as to say that no emigrant ticket should be sold unless the applicant held such a certificate from one of our consuls, we should be protected. We want protection, and want it in a practicable and feasible way. If this Congress cannot find such a way, we, as good citizens and philanthropists, should try to secure a Congress that will.

Mr. WOLF.—I exceedingly regret that the chairman of the committee has left the city, as I would like to express to him my gratification at the admirable report which he gave us last night on this subject. As an emigrant, and the son of an emigrant, I fully indorse every word contained in that paper. I could find no fault with it. It does not oppose immigration of a healthy character. It only tries to point out methods of preventing those from coming whom we do not want, and that Europe is only too glad to get rid of. What my friend from North Carolina has said is perfectly true. The majority of American consuls abroad—and I speak from personal experience—do not have too much to do. I think, if this duty were imposed upon them, it could be easily carried out, and the importation of a class of people whom we do not want could be prevented. Another point. The treaties of this country are not sufficiently broad and guarded between this country and others. Look at Russia. An American citizen to-day, happening to be of Jewish birth, cannot go back to Russia and still be an American citizen. He is subject to the laws of Russia, as are the Jews of Russia,—an injustice that America tolerates and that England does not. A few years ago, when the Jews were obliged to flee from Russia, we organized societies in all parts of the United States for the purpose of caring for these people. At our own cost, we sent back all those that were not proper persons to be made citizens of the United States, and specially instructed the committee in England not to send us any more of that character, as we only wanted those that would amalgamate with the best. Those that were fit we succeeded in placing on farms and in colonies. If every portion of the United States were to take hold of immigration in this way, and see to it that those who are fit were properly cared for and that those who were not fit were returned, there would be no trouble on the subject. It is only a question of duty and self-sacrifice, and the expense of time and money.

Mr. LETCHWORTH.—I should be sorry to have a reflection go out from this Conference against our consuls abroad. There may be exceptions; but, so far as my own observation goes, their duties, in many instances quite laborious, are faithfully performed.

Mr. WRIGHT heartily agreed with the spirit of the resolution offered by Mr. Beasley, but thought it ought to be referred to the Business Committee.

Mr. FOSTER said that coming, as he did, from Western Pennsylvania, which had been built up largely by laborers from abroad, he could not approve of any resolution that appeared to condemn foreign immigration. He approved of the resolution so far as it went, but thought it ought to go farther, and provide careful supervision of the names of persons proposing to come over, so that no injustice should be done to those who had helped to make this country what it is. Those who are coming may have been sent for by relatives, and they should not be prevented from coming.

Mr. BEASLEY said that in no sense must he be understood as opposing honest, upright, and industrious people emigrating to this country: he only wanted to keep out improper people.

It was then moved and voted that the resolution offered by Mr. Beasley be referred to the Committee on Immigration.

The Committee on Statistics reported through F. B. Sanborn (page 383), and by a supplementary statement by Fred. H. Wines (page 390).

On motion of Dr. Walk, it was voted :—

That the supplementary report prepared by Mr. Wines be recommitted to the Committee on Statistics, with instructions to make such additions before the publication of the Proceedings of the Conference as the present state of facts requires, and to carry into effect, as far as may be practicable, the recommendations of the report in reference to a uniform system of statistical records.

The Committee on Charity Organization in Cities reported through the chairman, W. Alex. Johnson, of Cincinnati (page 316).

Miss SMITH, referring to Mr. Johnson's report, asked what was the value of registering the in-door voluntary work of charitable institutions.

Mr. JOHNSON replied that he had found great value in registering such institutions. The Children's Home, for instance, in Cincinnati, receives day scholars, and cases are also received for temporary care; and it has been found of service to have these registered.

A paper on "The Boston Wayfarers' Lodge," by T. F. Ring, of Boston, was read in his absence by Mr. Rosenau (page 321).

DISCUSSION.

Mr. McCULLOCH.—The lodge described by Mr. Ring may stand as a specimen of many wayfarers' lodges. In Indianapolis, we consider this a most valuable feature of charitable work. I went to Boston five years ago, and went through the one that has been described. We adopted its rules and main features; and we have now a "Friendly Inn," as it is called. A large proportion of those who are moving through the country as tramps would work, if they could. We have accommodations for ninety. We use cot beds. We have a large wood-yard, capable of working a hundred men. It is on our own switch, and we have on hand usually a thousand cords of wood. This is brought by the railroads at the exact cost of transportation. This is in process of manufacture, all the way from the large cord-wood sticks down to bundles of kindling wood. A man can come in at any time up to nine o'clock at night. If he comes in late, he is given a bed; if he comes in early, he will first work for his bed and food. Before he has his breakfast, he must saw about one-sixth of a cord of wood, or split a certain amount. The Friendly Inn and the Friendly Inn Wood-yard have, in the last two years, paid all expenses, and made a profit of five hundred dollars a year. They have entertained between seven and eight thousand men and women.

It is also a temporary home for women and children who are left at the Union Depot. The product of the labor of women is not reckoned. They are considered as strangers. About fifteen hundred sick and crippled men and women and children were aided last year, in addition to those who worked out their food and lodging. As a work test, as a refuge, as giving work to men and boys, we consider it of the greatest value. In connection with the Inn is now a free bath-house, capable of accommodating a hundred.

Mr. ABRAHAM.—We have in Washington a night lodging-house, where wayfarers are lodged and well fed on precisely the same plan. It would surprise you to know the good quality of the people who are sometimes housed there, men who come here in pursuit of employment or of their rights before government.

The report of the Committee on the Statistics of Juvenile Reformatories was read by Rev. H. H. Hart, of Minnesota, and Israel C. Jones, of New York (page 387).

On motion, it was voted that the report should be adopted, and that the Committee on Statistics be continued for the purpose of carrying out its recommendations.

Adjourned at 12.30 o'clock.

THIRTEENTH SESSION.

Wednesday afternoon, June 10.

The Conference met at 2 P.M., the President in the chair.

The report of the Committee on Organization was read and adopted, as follows:—

The organization of the National Conferences of Charities and Correction is of the simplest character; and, for the guidance of future Conferences, the Twelfth, held at Washington, June 4-10, 1885, places it thus on record.

A president, one or more vice-presidents, and three secretaries comprise the officers, and are selected by a nominating committee, appointed at each meeting. The council is composed of all ex-presidents. A corresponding secretary is appointed from each State and Territory.

The committees consist of an executive committee, that shall elect one of its numbers as treasurer, and a committee upon each subject which it is proposed to discuss at the ensuing Conference.

The Conferences do not raise money to pay the expenses of the meeting, and have no fund upon which to draw. They, therefore, depend entirely on the local committee in the place where each meeting is held for these purposes.

The cost of publication of Proceedings is paid by the sale, subscriptions being taken in advance, and the price being so fixed as to

include the free distribution of copies to the officers of the Conference, corresponding secretaries, writers of papers, the Governors of States, and the newspaper press, in the cost. The cost of reporting and editing the Proceedings is paid by the local committee; and the Conference is thus enabled to place its Proceedings in circulation at a very low rate.

The business committees are relied on to prepare papers and discussions on their respective subjects.

It devolves on the corresponding secretaries for the States to work up an interest throughout their several States, to procure the appointment of official delegates by State Boards of Charities and Correction, or similar bodies, where there are any, and by Governors, when there are none, and to publish information as to the Conference, when the circulars of invitation and programmes are issued.

The local committee is expected to supply the necessary funds to pay expenses, and to make all necessary preparations locally for the meeting, and to secure low railroad and hotel rates.

The president-elect supervises the whole of these various preparations, sees that no oversight of business is made, corresponds with Governors and Boards of Charities, supplies omissions in the appointment of officers and vacancies which may occur afterwards, and directs the meeting while in session.

The treasurer is custodian of the unsold copies of the Proceedings and of the money received and disbursed in course of their preparation.

The executive committee is the president's advisory board, and holds the powers of the Conference in the interim between the meetings.

All of the above officers hold their offices for the term of one year, or until the next meeting of the Conference.

The Committee on Organization recommends to the Conference for election the following persons : —

President.

WILLIAM HOWARD NEFF, of Ohio.

Vice-Presidents.

D. C. BELL, of Minnesota.

W. F. BEASLEY, of North Carolina.

J. H. ESTILL, of Georgia.

Secretaries.

H. H. HART, of Minnesota.

A. O. WRIGHT, of Wisconsin.

O. C. McCULLOCH, of Indiana.

Executive Committee.

W. H. NEFF, of Ohio.

PHILIP C. GARRETT, of Pennsylvania.

F. B. SANBORN, of Massachusetts.

A. E. ELMORE, of Wisconsin.

FRED. H. WINES, of Illinois.

Council, all of the ex-Presidents, viz.:

GEO. S. ROBINSON.

ROELOFF BRINKERHOFF.

F. B. SANBORN.

A. E. ELMORE.

F. H. WINES.

W. P. LETCHWORTH.

P. C. GARRETT.

The following Committees are recommended:—

1. Committee on State Boards of Charities.
2. " " Reports from States.
3. " " the Insane.
4. " " Feeble-minded and Idiotic Persons.
5. " " Preventive Work among Children.
6. " " the Organization of Charity.
7. " " Labor in Prisons and Reformatories.
8. " " Immigration and Migration.
9. " " Reform Schools.
10. " " Kindergartens.
11. " " Statistics with Reference to Pauperism and Crime.
12. " " Federal Prisons and Prisoners.

Committee on State Boards of Charities.

H. H. Giles,	Wisconsin.	C. E. Faulkner,	Kansas.
J. L. Milligan,	Pennsylvania.	Henry E. Burton,	Connecticut.
E. M. Hunt,			New Jersey.

Committee on Reports from States.

Fred. H. Wines,	Illinois.	R. Brinkerhoff,	Ohio.
Henry L. Green,			Rhode Island.

Committee on the Insane.

Richard Gundry, M.D., . . .	Maryland.	W. W. Reed, M.D., . . .	Wisconsin.
John B. Chapin, M.D., . . .	Pennsylvania	A. N. Denton, M.D., . . .	Texas.
W. W. Godding, M.D., . . .	Dist. of Columbia.	Randolph Barksdale, M.D.,	Virginia.
Peter Bryce, M.D., . . .	Alabama.	Thomas G. Morton, M.D., .	Pennsylvania.
A. B. Richardson, M.D., . .	Ohio.	H. P. Mathewson, M.D., .	Nebraska.
W. B. Goldsmith, M.D., . . .			Massachusetts.

Committee on Feeble-minded and Idiotic Persons.

John Q. A. Stewart, M.D.,	Kentucky.	Rev. C. F. Robertson, . .	Missouri.
Isaac N. Kerlin, M.D., . .	Pennsylvania.	A. G. Smith, M.D., . . .	Massachusetts.
E. M. Gallaudet, M.D., . .	Dist. of Columbia.	J. C. Carson, M.D., . . .	New York.
Geo. H. Knight, M.D., . .	Minnesota.	G. A. Doren, M.D., . . .	Ohio.

Committee on Preventive Work among Children.

Mrs. V. T. Smith,	Connecticut.	Mrs. C. S. Hoyt,	New York.
Miss Anna Hallowell, . . .	Pennsylvania.	Miss Mary Garrett, . . .	Maryland.
Mrs. Clara T. Leonard, . . .	Massachusetts.	Dr. De LaMatyr,	Colorado.
Mrs. Mary E. Cobb,	Wisconsin.	Mrs. B. J. Hall,	Iowa.

Committee on Organization of Charity.

W. Alex. Johnson,	Ohio.	Mrs. J. S. Lowell,	New York.
Levi L. Barbour,	Michigan.	Mrs. E. B. Fairbank,	Wisconsin.
J. W. Walk,	Pennsylvania.	Rev. E. R. Donehoo,	Pennsylvania.
C. G. Trusdell,	Illinois.	Mrs. O. C. Dinsmore,	Nebraska.
M. L. Williston,			Iowa.

Committee on Labor in Prisons and Reformatories.

Z. R. Brockway,	New York.	P. Lavery,	New Jersey.
C. E. Felton,	Illinois.	Morrison Foster,	Pennsylvania.
Chancellor Hartson,	California.	Charles M. Koehler,	Dakota.
W. J. Hicks,	North Carolina.	A. G. Byers,	Ohio.
Eugene Smith,	New York.	S. H. Sonneschein,	Missouri.

Committee on Immigration and Migration.

Dr. C. S. Hoyt,	New York.	M. McG. Dana,	Minnesota.
Dr. Herbert M. Howe,	Pennsylvania.	Francis Wayland,	Connecticut.
F. B. Sanborn,	Massachusetts.	W. D. Chipley,	Florida.
Simon Wolf,			District of Columbia.

Committee on Reform Schools.

P. Caldwell,	Kentucky.	B. J. Kirkwood,	Maryland.
W. G. Fairbank,	Vermont.	J. H. Mills,	North Carolina.
Ira Otterson,	New Jersey.	C. J. Hite,	Ohio.
L. S. Fulton,	New York.	T. J. Charlton,	Indiana.
Morrison Foster,	Pennsylvania.	J. D. Scouller,	Illinois.
D. M. Ingersoll,	Minnesota.	W. P. Jacobs,	South Carolina.
R. C. McRee,			Tennessee.

Committee on Kindergartens.

Miss Anna Hallowell,	Pennsylvania.	Miss Susan E. Blow,	Missouri.
Miss L. B. Pingree,			Massachusetts.

Committee on Statistics on Causes of Pauperism and Crime.

J. L. Bailly,	Pennsylvania.	Dr. C. S. Hoyt,	New York.
Fred. H. Wines,			Illinois.

Committee on Federal Prisons and Prisoners.

R. Brinkerhoff,	Ohio.	J. L. Milligan,	Pennsylvania.
Fred. H. Wines,	Illinois.	Z. R. Brockway,	New York.
G. S. Griffith,			Maryland.

State Corresponding Secretaries.

Alabama,	J. H. Johnson, M.D., Talladega.	Dist. of Colum'a, Mrs. Sara A. Spencer.	
Arkansas,	C. C. Forbes, M.D., Little Rock.	Florida,	W. D. Chipley, Pensacola.
California,	Mrs. S. B. Cooper, San Francisco.	Georgia,	A. F. Colquet, Atlanta.
Colorado,	Mrs. J. S. Sperry, Pueblo.	Illinois,	John W. Whipp, Springfield.
Connecticut,	Henry E. Burton, Hartford.	Indiana,	W. B. Fletcher, M.D., Ind'polis.
Dakota,	Jacob Schaezel, Jr., Sioux Falls.	Iowa,	J. McCowen, M.D., Davenport.
Delaware,	William M. Canby, Wilmington.	Kansas,	W. Nicholson, M.D., Lawrence.

Kentucky, . . .	J. D. Pickett, Frankfort.	New York, . . .	W. R. Stewart, New York.
Louisiana, . . .	Charles A. Allen, New Orleans.	North Carolina, . . .	J. H. Mills, Thomasville.
Maine, . . .	Prentiss M. Loring, Portland.	Ohio, . . .	M. D. Carrington, Toledo.
Maryland, . . .	G. S. Griffith, Baltimore.	Oregon, . . .	A. L. Lindsley, Portland.
Massachusetts, . . .	Gardiner Tufts, Concord.	Pennsylvania, . . .	W. J. Sawyer, Allegheny.
Michigan, . . .	J. J. Wheeler, East Saginaw.	Rhode Island, . . .	C. W. Wendte, Newport.
Minnesota, . . .	Nelson Williams, Minneapolis.	South Carolina, . . .	P. E. Griffin, Columbia.
Mississippi, . . .	T. J. Mitchell, Jackson.	Tennessee, . . .	J. C. Ferris, Nashville.
Missouri, . . .	T. P. Haley, Kansas City.	Texas, . . .	A. N. Denton, M.D., Austin.
Nebraska, . . .	J. A. Gillespie, Omaha.	Vermont, . . .	Julia C. Dorr, Rutland.
Nevada, . . .	C. S. Young, Carson City.	Virginia, . . .	J. B. Crenshaw, Richmond.
New Hampshire, . . .	John E. Mason, Manchester.	Wash'ton Ter., . . .	James Wickersham.
New Jersey, . . .	E. M. Hunt, M.D., Trenton.	West Virginia, . . .	R. R. Swope, Wheeling.
New Mexico, . . .	Gen. Sedgwick.	Wisconsin, . . .	J. H. Vivian, M.D., Miner's Point.

The subject of Charity Organization was resumed.

A paper on "Combined Efforts in Charity Work," by Rev. E. R. Donehoo, of Pennsylvania, was read by the chairman of the committee (page 326).

A paper was read by Rev. C. G. Trusdell, of Chicago, upon "Organized Charities" (page 329).

A paper was read by Dr. J. W. Walk, of Philadelphia, on "The Relations of Organized Charity to Public and Private Relief" (page 336).

A paper on "The Personal Element in Charity" was read by Rev. Oscar C. McCulloch, of Indianapolis (page 340).

A paper on "Better Homes for Workingmen," by Alfred T. White, of Brooklyn, was presented (page 365).

DISCUSSION.

GEORGE B. BUZELLE, of Brooklyn, opened the discussion by relating the account of the giving up of out-door relief in that city. (See previous reports of Proceedings.) In the seven years since it was given up there has been a saving of about one million dollars, and the amount distributed by the local charities has not increased. No one has ever counselled the restoration of out-door relief, not even politicians. The charity organization has covered the ground, and the workers in that field are largely absorbed in the personal element. This commands their enthusiasm, and in it they find their strongest encouragement.

Mrs. POLLOCK thought there ought to be a free nursery and free kindergarten in connection with the work of organized charity for the children of those applying for work or for assistance.

Mr. ROSENAU.—The reading of the last two papers suggests a problem to me, which I deem of considerable interest. One underlying principle of charity organization work, as I take it, and as Mr. McCulloch expresses it, is to bring the giver into personal contact with the recipient of aid. Another underlying principle is that the relief shall be adequate. If you have a family requiring

relief that, to be adequate, must be considerable, it is very difficult to rely upon an individual to grant it. Therefore, a relief society must step in. But it is hard to get a small relief society to give a sufficient amount, and hence you need the general relief society. But, if you organize a general relief society, you do away with the personal contact of the giver and the recipient. On which horn of the dilemma shall we hang ourselves?

MR. MANN.—The problem which has just been raised is very important; but it seems to me that the resources of the private individual are inexhaustible, while the resources of societies are exhaustible. And, while the giving of relief by societies is always attended by evil, the relief by individuals is attended by good.

MISS SMITH.—I want to say a word as to the advantages and the difficulties of working a company of volunteer visitors,—difficulties not at first apparent. It seems easy to say that there are many people with leisure who can give a little time in each week to this work. They can give it, that is true. You can get the visitor and give her a family, and for a while she will do the work. But, if there is not some plan for holding these visitors together and making them help each other, they will become discouraged and drop off. Perhaps three or four will keep on, and wonder why the others stop. People say to me, You must have different people in Boston, if you can keep your visitors. But they are of the same blood as the people of Washington and of other parts of the country. The difference is that somebody in the conference has the power of organization, and does that work. That is the secret of it all. That is what our local conferences are for. To be fully successful, there must be two or three persons in them who have the power of holding things together and fitting them to their places. It requires patience and tact. It seems easy at first; and, at the end of a year, you think you know all about it. At the end of three years, you begin to think you know hardly anything about it. The thing you know best is how much more there is to learn. You have not only to learn the characteristics of the poor, but of all your visitors. Now, what are the advantages that make it worth while to take so much trouble? If you have nine members of a committee, and they decide that they will not be bothered with inexperienced volunteers, then they can do but nine persons' work. If, on the other hand, these nine persons say, We will each visit one family regularly, but we will give most of our time to the organization and administration of the conference and to the helping of our visitors, then you can have ninety visitors,—as we have in one of our conferences,—and ten times as much work is done. Then there is the economy of resource, which seems to me more important than the question of relief, because it often prevents the need of relief. No one person, no paid agent, no committee, even, can have such command of resources as a large company of people. If twenty or thirty persons come together to discuss these questions, you call upon the resources of twenty or thirty. When I say "resources," I do not mean so much money, but so much knowledge of employers, of landlords, of the many little things that make up a

poor person's life. Suppose, for example, you have a boy to look out for, who stammers so badly that he cannot get work. You have never known any one who stammers, and you do not know who the specialist is that can help the boy. But in this company of twenty or thirty there will be some one who knows all about it, and where you can take the boy to have him cured.

This illustration is inadequate, because few of the questions that come before the conference are so simple, and the visitors help each other in more delicate matters; but it will serve to show what we mean by resource. A movement of this kind, to be successful, must be popular. A great many people must know it,—not know about it, but *know it*. Every visitor whom you get to work among the poor learns, not only to know her own poor families, but to appreciate the work of other people in the same direction. If she meets with other visitors, and hears about their successes and failures, she does not look upon her own family as though everything must be done for that one alone, but as one of many others needing friendly help. The more intelligent views of life in its relation to our poorer neighbors, which grow upon her, are communicated to her friends. The more visitors, the more friends to hear their opinions and experiences, and the greater the effect upon the community.

MR. WOLF.—The publicity of relief-giving is often very unkind. It is by the true workers, who are sincere in their aims and objects, and in personal attention, that the truly needy are relieved. We have in Washington an organization for the relief of Hebrews. We never ask for a public report. We do not know who is relieved even, because we are trying to lift the recipients up, and to educate them to feel that this is simply lent to them, and that they can return it to the treasury some time; and quite a number have done so. We try to make them feel that they are aided because they have been unfortunate, and that they must aid others in turn as we have aided them. I believe in this personal action. Let the charity organization discover needy persons, and then let the personal friend look after the welfare of that family.

The following resolution, offered by Hon. WILLIAM P. LETCHWORTH, was referred to the Business Committee:—

Resolved, That this National Conference of Charities and Correction expresses its sympathy with the objects and purposes of the International Prison Congress to be held in Rome, Italy, in October next, and deems it highly desirable that this country should be represented in said Congress by one or more delegates, and therefore respectfully requests that the President of the United States appoint suitable persons to act in that capacity.

(A committee appointed by the Business Committee waited on President Cleveland at the close of the session, and presented this resolution. In accordance with the request contained therein, the President of the United States subsequently appointed Benjamin

Stark, of New London, Conn., a national delegate to the International Prison Congress in Rome.)

A paper on "Charitable Provision for the Aged," by C. S. Loch, secretary to the London Charity Organization Society, was read by Miss Zilpha D. Smith, of Boston (page 347).

DISCUSSION.

Miss SMITH.—There is one preventive measure which Mr. Loch has not mentioned in his paper. He says, when you have an aged woman to care for, the first thing to do is to search for the relatives and friends, and see if they cannot support her. I do not think it is often realized that children are a kind of insurance. We expect children to provide for their parents; but, in many poor families, the children are reared with almost no sense of filial duty. When they marry, they realize little of the responsibility they undertake toward wife or husband; and they do not feel that they have any duties toward the family into which they marry. One of the preventive measures, then, in visiting among the poor, especially in young families, is to awaken the interest of the members in each other. If you can make a boy feel that it is a pleasant thing to save up his pennies, and make a birthday present to his mother; to share his delights with his sister; if in any way you can make them feel that they have pleasant duties toward each other,—that will tend to create a stronger family feeling, which is sure to be a safeguard in old age. There is one other thing I wish to speak of,—the friendly societies, as they are called in England: mutual benefit societies is our phrase. The English papers are full of their praise; and yet, as you turn the page, you read of their insolvency. It is hard to reconcile the two. I have sometimes been urged to join such societies, and I noticed that the arguments brought forward do not include the idea of mutual help. The two chief arguments are these: you put in a little, you get back a great deal. That is the gambling spirit. Again, if you join this society, by and by, when you want money very much, you cannot be led away by present temptation, you cannot draw it out to spend foolishly, you must keep it there. That is teaching people to distrust themselves. These arguments are based on the weakness of human nature; and, when Mr. Loch says that friendly societies are better for men, women, and boys than savings banks, I cannot believe it. They may be an education toward putting away money for a definite purpose. But the savings bank avoids the gambling motive, and teaches people, not only to trust in each other, but to trust in themselves,—not to touch the money they have saved till the moment of supreme need. It seems to me that savings banks are far better than the friendly societies.

Mr. JOHNSON.—I have a special liking for this pension work for worthy old people. Allow me to give you an illustrative case. We found a worthy old woman going from door to door, collecting small sums of money for her support. Although able to do a little work,

she had no time for it, as her precarious collections occupied her whole day. We persuaded some of those who were giving her this money to give through one of our visitors, regularly; and we managed to make the contributions sufficient, and the old woman stays at home. The London Charity Organization *Reporter* has an advertising column for cases of all kinds that require special help, especially pension cases; and the visitors collect the money from the givers, sometimes in large and sometimes in small amounts, and convey it to the recipients.

Miss SMITH.—The amount of money necessary to be collected for such an old woman is usually much smaller, if you can persuade her relatives to let her live with them. A pension of fifty cents or a dollar a week may, for instance, persuade a nephew to keep an old aunt, when otherwise she would be turned away entirely.

Mr. VISHER.—In St. Paul, we have county poorhouses and outdoor relief; but we have something better than either for old people, and that is a well-regulated Little Sisters' Home. An old man or an old woman receives more tender care at the hands of these Sisters of Charity than when left to the mercies of a heartless son-in-law, who is compelled socially to assume the partial support of that old man or woman; and I think such institutions are more economical than anything we can do for old people.

Judge OGDEN also called attention to the provisions that the Church, in all denominations, has made for homeless and aged poor people.

In accordance with a resolution offered by A. E. ELMORE, it was voted,—

That the publisher of the Proceedings be and is hereby directed to cause to be inserted therein portraits of Gen. Brinkerhoff, a former President of the Conference, and of Philip C. Garrett, the President of this Conference.

Adjourned at 5.30.

FOURTEENTH SESSION.

Wednesday night, June 10.

The Conference met at 7.30 P.M., the President in the chair.

An extract from a paper on "Charity Work," by William Stevens, of Louisville, Ky., was read by Mr. Johnson.

The discussion on Charity Organization was resumed.

DISCUSSION.

Dr. WALK. — Our Wayfarer's Lodge is not self-supporting, but it pays about four-fifths of the expenses. It is not under the control of the city, but is a private enterprise. The income from sales is about

twelve hundred dollars per month: it expends a little more. It is hoped that it will be made self-supporting by some changes in the future. As to the value of it, I will say that, once having had it and the wood-yard, we do not see how we could get on without them in Philadelphia.

Mr. MASSEY.—I would like to ask if any smaller cities have wood-yards and lodges in successful operation. We have not yet organized one in Wilmington, but we have it under contemplation. Some of the members of the board rather object to starting a wood-yard, from the reason that there are several in town that supply the city with all the wood necessary; and, if the Associated Charities should establish one, it would break up those already in operation.

Mr. POTWIN.—In Hartford, Conn., which has a population of about fifty thousand, we have a wood-yard in connection with the town-house, without a separate institution as a lodge. The town-house being convenient to the police station, applicants are sent there during the winter, where they work in the wood-yard as much as is necessary to make an equivalent for what they receive. Other people in the city, out of employment, are allowed to go there and saw wood at fifty cents a day.

In regard to the Associated Charities, we are trying a similar plan. We have what is called the Almoners' Conference. It was found that several persons were living entirely from what they could get from the different societies; and, to prevent this, the Almoners' Conference was organized. It meets once in two weeks, under the superintendence of representatives of all the charitable societies and institutions, recording all applications of persons for aid and comparing notes to prevent overlapping in administering it.

Mr. VISHER.—We have a wood-yard in St. Paul that is still an experiment. It was my opinion that wood-yards could be made to pay; but, instead of establishing one of our own, we went to the men at the head of those already established, and asked them to take the men we would send. They said they would do so, and would give the men fifty cents a day. Up to date, the experiment has worked well. We have been able to give employment to every man that has come to us, without ourselves being at the expense of wood or of the superintendence of a wood-yard. As it would be rather hard to keep the men on such small wages, we have advertised for general employment, and have been able to guarantee permanent work at ordinary wages to any man who remained in our hands long enough to prove to us that he desired honest employment. We arrange with lodging-houses to give board and lodging to these men. We have had some experience in other lines of work, and have found instances where contractors were willing to take these men off from our hands, when we could recommend them.

A paper on "A Free Public Employment Bureau," by Horace F. Barnes, secretary of the Baptist City Mission, New York, was read by Mrs. Lowell (page 362).

DISCUSSION.

Mr. ROSENAU.—We maintain a labor bureau in Buffalo. We insist that all able-bodied applicants for work, women without husbands or with husbands unable to support themselves, shall take the labor we offer them in the shape of washing and housework. After we have supported a woman in that way for a time, she is usually able to find work for herself. I would like to refer to a higher form of lodge for men which has been put in operation in Buffalo by a very modest society, a society for the reclamation of young men. It has done a considerable amount of good; yet I do not believe there are three hundred people in the city, outside of the members, who know of its existence. It is called the Guard of Honor Society. It was started by Miss Milligan, who got together a band of working boys for the purpose of humanizing them; and she succeeded in doing it. That led to the foundation of a building, which was erected two years ago. Cots, baths, and a reading-room are provided. Young men who drift into the city are sent to this house. It is not open in the daytime, because the principle is that, in the daylight hours, a young man should be looking for work. When such a young man comes, he is kindly received, and given all the facilities of the house, and is provided with lodgings for a week. During that week, he is brought into contact with the members of the society. Every member is a workingman; and, as a rule, he has been saved by the society, and is a safe companion for the young man. He is brought into contact with them nightly. There are hundreds of them in active employment, and constantly looking out for employment for this young applicant. Miss Milligan is there two evenings in the week, and makes it a point to come in contact with these young men. This contact she finds has a decided beneficial effect on the men. The number of young men who have actually been aided by the Guard of Honor is already counted by thousands.

Dr. WALK.—The trouble in establishing labor bureaus and carrying them on successfully is that there is not enough work for all who apply. I am constantly confronted with the statement that there is work enough for all, that the Lord never sends a child into the world with two hands without providing work for them. That is not true in the State of Pennsylvania. During the last winter there were hundreds in the city of Philadelphia who had no work to do. There were more hands than labor, and I apprehend the same thing was true in New York. I do not say that an intelligent and skilful worker need remain out of employment; but I do say that the class applying at the Charity Organization Society's rooms are those who in slack times get out of work and stay out of work, because they have slightly trained hands and poorly educated brains, and I do not believe it will be practicable in my city to get employment for all these people through a general employment office. When we had such rooms, they were crowded; and there was not work for more than one in five. Our Young Men's Christian Association has such

rooms now; but there are very few who get work, compared with those who apply. If you are going to establish such a bureau, do not do it with too confident expectation of success.

Mrs. LOWELL.—Immigration is not so large now as it was formerly. Some years ago, it was four hundred thousand in one year; and the majority of those people got work. In 1882, the Emigration Labor Bureau got places for more than twenty-nine thousand men and eight thousand women. I was there one day in May, and asked the superintendent, Mr. Connolly, about the demand for work men and women. He said that he could find any number of places for tailors and shoemakers at that season; that he had, that day, applications for fifty farmers, and he could not send ten, and that they could not begin to supply the demand for women. I asked if it was because the immigrants were willing to go for less wages than our people; and he replied that it was not so as a rule, that, if a man comes in and offers lower wages than the common rate, the immigrants are told that it is below the regular rate, sometimes to the anger of the employer. Mr. Connolly said that they had ceased sending women out of the city, because they had places enough in New York for them. I asked his opinion as to whether it was better to have a labor bureau entirely free to employers; and he said that it was, because they must not be allowed to feel that they had paid for any rights there: the bureau must be free to turn them out, if they did not do as they ought. If immigrants can all find work, we ought to be able to find it for our own people, it seems to me.

Mr. MASSEY.—We have had some little experience in this direction. We started a labor bureau last winter for men and women. We made arrangements with contractors to take a certain number of men, and notified our visitors to send to the office all such worthy men as needed employment. Before seven o'clock next morning, we had one hundred and thirty applicants at the office. We only needed fifteen or twenty. We have had farmers apply to us for help; but it seems almost impossible to get people who have drifted into the city to go back to the country, where they can find plenty of employment. One day last winter, a boat-load of ice arrived; and the superintendent of the company sent for a number of men. I notified fifteen or twenty of the best men I had to go and secure the employment on the boat. A day or two afterward, I went down to see how many had reported. Just three out of fifteen were at work. These are some of the difficulties that we have to contend with, in a labor bureau.

Dr. BYERS.—Are we to understand from these remarks that the difference between an immigrant and a tramp is that one is willing to work and the other is not? That is rather my own experience. What will the offices do with people unwilling to work?

Dr. WALK.—When you get a ship-load of immigrants, you get an assorted lot. A large majority are anxious to work, and many are skilled workers. When you get tramps, they are "the last in the basket." They may not be morally bad, but they are incompetent: they do not know how to do anything, and they do not want to learn how.

Mr. ROSENAU.—We found some incorrigible cases in sending people out to work. They would come back, and say the parties had concluded that they wanted no help. We then devised a system of keeping track of these people. We had a card printed with blanks for address of employers, employment, work furnished, amount of money paid, and the nature of the performance of the work; and we gave these women to understand that, unless they brought this card back properly filled out, we would give them no more work. We watched the results pretty closely for three months in one of our offices. Not one card came back marked unsatisfactory, and only one came back not filled up; and we gave work to hundreds of women.

POSTAL SAVINGS BANKS.

Hon. CHARLES S. FAIRCHILD, first assistant Secretary of the Treasury, made a brief address on postal savings banks, as follows:—

Mr. FAIRCHILD.—I do not know that I can say very much to add to the knowledge you must already have on this subject of what is miscalled the postal savings bank. It is not a savings bank, in the ordinary sense. It is simply lending to the government small sums of money at fixed but very small rates of interest. It differs in no respect from an ordinary loan to the government, except that the government receives the money through the money order post-offices throughout the country, and repays it upon demand to the depositors, or to the lenders to the government, the government being responsible for this money and giving its guarantee. This system possesses none of the disadvantages of what is ordinarily known as a savings bank. It is as good to the depositor as the government. The security is as good as any other security which the government of the United States could give.

It was my lot for four years to watch the downfall of savings bank after savings bank in New York. For four years, I was in the office of the attorney-general of that State; and during those four years, from Jan. 1, 1874, to Jan. 1, 1878, there were many, many failures of savings banks, and it was one of the saddest of my duties in that office to take the necessary proceedings to close up those banks, driving them out of existence, and showing their depositors that their faith had been misplaced. The money which they had been saving, dime by dime, was lost to them forever. The government had assumed a certain obligation to these people: it had assumed to examine those banks,—the government of that State. It had an elaborate system of law, which depositors supposed was a protection to them. It was not: it was only a delusion. All that they had to depend on, in truth, was the ability and integrity of the men who managed those savings banks. It was impossible for the government to perform its full duty toward the depositors in those banks under the laws as they then existed. And, in my judgment, it will always be impossible for the government to make *sure* the savings deposited in any savings banks managed by private individuals. But

the government can, if it so choose, assume this responsibility itself, to a limited extent. It ought to be to a very limited extent, only far enough to teach people to save. After that, they must use their own minds. They must learn to exert themselves, to find proper investments, proper security for their savings, over and above the small sums which the government will allow them to place with it.

This system has been very successfully introduced in almost all parts of the civilized world, and there is no reason why its benefits should not be extended to our people. There will be certain difficulties here, which do not exist elsewhere. The fact that our government has at present, and has had for many years, a surplus revenue over its ordinary receipts, will make it necessary to deal with this subject differently from what it has been dealt with in England, where they never attempt to have, and never do have, a surplus revenue. Our country, which is rapidly paying its debt, will have to deal with this subject in a still different way, so far as the management of the funds is concerned; but its relations to depositors, the security it gives to them, will in no sense be less than that which England or Canada or many of the nations on the continent, or Japan, gives to its people. The arguments in favor of this system are stated in the Congressional report upon it, and in other places, if one chooses to look for them. Among these is the ease with which the deposits can be made, entailing but little labor on the part of the government, and hardly any on the part of the depositor, but absolute security. To my mind, this is a worthy task for the government to undertake. It can do no harm that I can imagine. No other branch of our government can do this. None of the States can do it, because they have not the facilities which are afforded by the government of the United States through its postal system. Consequently, if it is to be done at all, and done well, it must be done by the general government.

If the government meddles at all in the matter of savings banks, if it attempts to supervise them, it is, to my mind, so sacred a trust that it should make those deposits *absolutely secure*. In no way can that be done except by the government receiving them itself. That is the extent of this scheme. That is what it means. That is what has been done in many other countries, and that is what can be done here with perfect ease. And, in my judgment, if you, ladies and gentlemen, will take hold of the subject in its length and breadth, it is what our country will do in a very few years.

A DELEGATE.—What is the limit of the amount that may be deposited through the postal savings bank?

Mrs. LOWELL.—The provision in the bill that is referred to in the pamphlet that has been submitted to the Conference is that no single deposit can be less than ten cents nor more than \$100, and no more can be deposited within thirty days. \$500 is the limit. The proposition to consider this subject comes to the Conference through ex-Postmaster James, which shows that there can be no practical objection from the post-office side; and from the charity side there must be intense desire that such a bill should be passed. I think

it would teach providence to our people more than any one single thing.

Judge OGDEN believed that the government should make the savings of the poor absolutely secure, but thought there would be serious difficulties in carrying out such a scheme as was proposed.

Mr. SANBORN paid a tribute to the memory of Prof. George I. Chace, and offered the following resolution, which was unanimously adopted :—

Resolved, That the Conference laments the death of Prof. George I. Chace, of Rhode Island, by which that State has been deprived of an earnest and experienced public servant, while this Conference has lost one of its early members, by whose wisdom in counsel, amenity in debate, and comprehensive acquaintance with public charities we have often been aided.

Mr. HART paid a tribute to the memory of Miss Emma A. Hall, of Adrian, Mich., who had died within the year. On motion of Dr. Byers, it was voted that Mr. Hart should embody his remarks in a resolution, to be published in the Proceedings. The following is the resolution :—

The members of the National Conference of Charities and Correction have learned, with grief, of the death of Miss Emma A. Hall, late superintendent of the Michigan Industrial School for Girls. We recognized in her a woman of rare endowments, a warm and tender heart, wise judgment, and brave endeavor. We valued her counsel, and were stimulated by her earnest spirit. Her life was devoted to the creation in others of the noble womanhood of which she was an example; and she died, as she would have chosen, in the work. Her memory will be an incentive to renewed efforts to strengthen the weak and reclaim the wandering.

The President announced that the hour had arrived for the closing exercises.

Mr. NEFF offered the following resolution, which, after the addresses, was adopted :—

Resolved, That the thanks of the Twelfth National Conference of Charities and Correction are due, and are hereby tendered, to the President of the United States for a kind reception, and for his presence and manifested interest at one of the most important meetings of this Conference, on Sabbath evening last; to Miss Cleveland for her cordial reception of the ladies, for her presence in the Conference, and for her letters of approval and encouragement; to the Commissioners of the District of Columbia for their courteous welcome to the capital of the nation, the most beautiful city of the land; to the Local Committee, and especially to Mrs. Spencer, for the extent, magnitude, and success of their arrangements; to the officers of the various governmental and public institutions for many courtesies; to the daily press and to the associated press for their constant and favorable notices; to the railroad companies for the facilities which made this Conference

possible; and to the citizens of Washington for a hospitality so courteous, so cordial, and so generous that it has made the Twelfth Conference one of the most memorable in our history.

The President called on Hon. A. E. Elmore to speak to the resolution.

Mr. ELMORE declined to add a word to the resolution, lest he should be charged with gilding refined gold. He was sure that every one felt what the resolution expressed, and that all would be ready to say "ay" to it.

Dr. BYERS, who was next called for, said that he sympathized with Mr. Elmore in feeling that any one was placed at a great disadvantage, when asked to respond to a resolution that so well embodied the sentiment of the entire Conference. We have been, continued Dr. Byers, the recipients of one continued exhibition of kindness, cordiality, and sympathy,—not that sympathy merely which would come to us socially, but the sympathy that finds expression in the work in which we are engaged. We have been occupied for nearly a week in the consideration of very momentous social questions, some of them not yet definitely settled, some of them involving intricate points, some of them still lingering in our care and thoughts. We have been discussing, with more or less pertinence, these subjects as they have been presented, beginning early and continuing late; and yet, at the close of this busy week, with a sense of profound fatigue, that even comes with exhaustion to Mr. Elmore, who was never before tired in his life, we are called on to respond to this resolution. I can only say that the resolution expresses, I am sure, the sentiment of the Conference, and that we shall leave Washington with as much regret as we came to it with gladness. Everything during the session has been done with complete harmony and absorbing interest. The help we have had to make our work pleasant from the Local Committee, and the courtesies extended by those in position, have been delightful; and from our hearts we thank you.

Gen. BRINKERHOFF, who was invited to add a word, said: I desire to say to the members of the Local Committee that they have done nobly. There has never been a Conference—and I have attended all but one—in which we have received so large a welcome as we have in Washington. This is the largest Conference that we have ever held, and it is encouraging to us who have been with it from the beginning to know that the work in which we are engaged is increasing in interest to the public. We have here a membership of over

four hundred, and from year to year this increasing interest has been manifested by the people of the places where we have assembled. And I think that our influence will not be in vain. I know that in the cities where we have met from time to time there has been an increased interest felt in our work, because men have become more enlightened on these subjects. I have had occasion to pass through a number of Southern States in coming here; and I was delighted to find the progress that is making in Alabama, Georgia, Florida, and the Carolinas. We have their members here, for nearly every Southern State has been represented; and we are glad to have them here. Another word. We are glad of the interest manifested by those connected with the administration, and by the President of the United States himself. It is a good thing for the country to have those at the fountain-head of the nation, those who are in official position, interested in our work. It is good to see Mr. Fairchild here, whom we have known in the past. We were glad to have the President of the United States at our prison meeting on Sunday night, for he can be of great service to us in that work. One of the greatest drawbacks to prison reform in this country is that the government has not given an example to the States in this work. We feel that the time has come when the government of the United States ought to look to its own prisons. There are now a thousand prisoners scattered through the States without proper supervision by the general government, and many thousands in the jails throughout the land. It is a shame that it is so; and we as citizens ought to see to it that this state of things shall come to an end, and that the government shall care for its own prisoners, and that we shall have a series of graded prisons. We are glad, therefore, to have members of the administration interested in our work; and we trust that it will bear fruit, and that speedily. Another reform that we need is a more intelligent administration in the public institutions of the country; and, to secure this, a more permanent administration is required, and this again demands a non-political administration. In the attainment of these ends, we recognize with satisfaction the civil service policy of President Cleveland. I say we, because I am entirely certain that the members of this Conference, or of any other having at heart the best interests of our public institutions, would be absolutely unanimous in indorsing Governmental action in the directions I have indicated. Now, friends, we are to separate, to go back to our work; and there is no nobler work. You are here from all parts of the land, and you will carry back with you an inspiration which will go

far and wide. God speed you in the noblest work in which men and women can be engaged on this earth!

The President invited Hon. M. S. Wilkinson, of Minnesota, to address the Conference.

MR. WILKINSON. — Allow me to say that I am very much gratified at the action of this Conference in directing that its next meeting shall be held at St. Paul; and yet, within the past few minutes, I have almost regretted that action. Knowing how much the people of Washington have done for the success of this meeting, I almost fear that the people of St. Paul and of Minnesota will be hardly able to meet your expectations for the next Conference. Certainly, we should have to borrow some of the ensigns of our Republic that adorn this hall, if we would compete with this; for we have not so many in the whole State. But I think you will find warm and earnest hearts and an intelligent people, who feel a deep and abiding interest in the great cause in which this Conference is engaged. We are proud of our Minnesota charitable and penal institutions, considering the length of time that our State has been in existence. We have heard very complimentary remarks made of the State of Minnesota during your discussions, but it must be remembered that it is a very young State. Just before the war, it was only a Territory. But, in its very earliest legislature, it began its career of usefulness in the line of those reforms which it is your purpose and object to advance. The very first territorial legislature that met in the city of St. Paul, when there were but a few thousand people in the State, passed a common school bill, and levied a tax of two per cent. upon all the State to maintain schools,—a heavier tax, I apprehend, than ever was provided for in any law that was ever passed in the United States, more than all the other taxes that we now raise. Since then, through the munificence of Congress, we have a school fund amounting to millions of dollars from the sales of public lands given to our State. And in all the other institutions, charitable and correctional, the management of which you have been considering, Minnesota has taken a deep and real interest. I hope that your meeting there will be as profitable a one as this has been. I have paid very little attention to these matters heretofore; but I have received more information about them here than in any other meetings I ever attended in my life, more knowledge, that I shall carry with me as long as I live. The papers that have been given here have evidently been prepared with great care and study; and, when they are compiled in the minutes of this meeting, I apprehend that they will stand high as productions of very great merit.

Judge MACARTHUR, who had been invited to introduce the speakers from the city of Washington, called first on Prof. Alexander Graham Bell.

Mr. BELL.—I think that it is about time that we should have an opportunity of saying that the thanks are not all on one side; that the thanks of the citizens of Washington are due to this Conference for its meeting here, that the benefits are not all on one side. We have been benefited probably more than you. You have made us think of the subjects to which our attention has been directed but little, but which concern our own welfare and the welfare of society and the welfare of nations. The subjects that you have treated are of vital importance to the people, to every one; and we must thank you for directing our attention to them. It is your privilege to observe and diagnose the diseases to which society is liable. It is your privilege to devise remedial means, to seek prevention as well as cure for these evils. It is our privilege to accept the results of your deliberations, and, without effort on our part, to get the benefit of your wisdom and goodness.

But I come before you to-night, not only as a citizen of the District of Columbia, but as one specially interested in certain departments of your work. We teachers of the deaf and dumb have rather rebelled against being classified among the charitable associations of the country. We do not consider it a charity to educate the deaf and dumb. It may be interesting to you to know the general impression made upon an outsider by your deliberations and by the discussions that you have held. As I have said, we teachers of the deaf and dumb are not apt to consider ourselves as coming within the scope of charitable institutions; but I have been astonished and surprised at the character of the discussions that have been going on in this room. My familiarity with the discussions regarding the methods of dealing with the deaf and dumb has shown me that there is greater unity between all the different subjects under your consideration than I had supposed. The difficulties that arise from segregation run through all the charities. I can see the same discussion that we have concerning the care of the deaf and the dumb in your discussions as to the treatment of the insane, of criminals, and of paupers, however much we may object to be classed with these, however much we may object to having deaf children classed with paupers and insane. I see the recognition of one important point in all your discussions,—the fact that the congregation together of abnormals has a tendency to increase the number of the abnormal, and to

intensify the very defect we attempt to rectify. The congregating of the insane with the insane,—we see there are troubles arising from that. The congregating of criminals with criminals has the same capital defect, and the congregating of the deaf and dumb the same result. It increases instead of diminishes the evil. As a teacher of the deaf and dumb, I have been rather surprised to find no reference made in your discussion to the subject of the deaf and dumb. A short time ago, an important resolution was brought out in the city of New York, requesting the Board of Education in the State of New York to make some provision for the education of deaf children in day schools; but the Board of Education considered it the duty of the Board of State Charities, and there is a general feeling that the responsibility rests with the charitable organizations of the country. But it seems to me as if those who asked for it thought that the educators of the country ought to look after the education of the country. If that is your view, we agree with it; but I do not want you to neglect us.

I would direct your attention to the serious consideration of a statement in the census for 1880, that the total number of deaf-mutes in the institutions and schools of America is only 5,267, whereas the number of deaf-mutes of school age is 15,059. Such a statement as that demands serious consideration. I trust that the charity associations will not neglect the deaf and dumb. One-third of the deaf-mutes of school age, perhaps less, were in the institution when the census was taken. Something has to be done. I must say that I rather hoped, in spite of my wish that the educators of the country should take up the subject, that some of the delegates from Wisconsin would direct attention to the new departure in the care of them. The statement of the grand total of the number of deaf-mutes under instruction suggests a question as to the cause of this small percentage of the deaf and dumb under instruction; and, when we come to examine the results in the States in detail, there is still more food for thought. The results for the whole country are paralleled in each State. The number under instruction is small, and the institutions are full. What is the cause, and what is the remedy? It seems as if the institution plan had failed to reach a large proportion of the deaf-mutes of school age; and, if that is so, an increase of institutions would not remedy the defect. The fact seems to be that parents object to sending children away. There is a parental instinct for the companionship of the child. The plan to meet this in Wisconsin is this: They have a central institu-

tion, and are now supplementing this institution by numerous small day schools throughout the State, forming a chain, and being part of the public school system. Every town where deaf-mutes are found, and where parents desire that they shall be educated at home, can receive State aid to the extent of \$100 for every child instructed.

We want to enlist your hearts and your minds in this cause of the education of the deaf. I am sure that every citizen of Washington has followed with interest your discussions and your deliberations. Let me assure you that you will leave a lasting impression here. The seeds that you have sown in our minds and hearts will grow, and we must thank you for your resolution of thanks to-night and for your attendance in our city.

Miss CLARA BARTON was next introduced, and spoke as follows: I am glad of this opportunity for a moment to reach you with my voice to say how much I have enjoyed these meetings, and how highly I have prized the privilege of listening to the well-expressed ideas on the subjects presented, representing the thought and study of the best heads and hearts of the country. True, I have no right to a moment of these last precious hours; for I have performed none of the labor. Poor, hard-worked Mrs. Spencer has borne all my burdens, and now generously permits me to "come in at the death."

But do not fear, friends. I am not to entertain you with my opinions as to best methods of administering charities, nor if it be best to administer them at all; nor of dealing with the insane, the demented, nor the criminal. Nor will I say if I would have the children in institutions or in families, nor whether they shall all have fathers as well as mothers. Although I do believe I would try to make both blades of that pair of shears cut, if possible. Still, I realize that where there is no *rivet* it might be a more difficult thing to do.

All these things have been better thought and said than I shall ever be able to think or say them, and this Conference is by no means a place for the experiments of either an apprentice or a novice. The subjects which you have grasped are world-wide, universal, old as time, and interminable. They are mixed, inseparable, existing upon and creating each other. Where is ignorance must be vice; where is vice must be crime; where is profligacy must be waste; where is waste must be want; where is want must be woe; and where are all these must be brought the thought and effort of the better and more fortunate portions of mankind, to devise, prevent, assuage, protect, combat, succor, and provide, the world over.

One might not be able to determine just how far "original sin"

may be responsible for this state of things, but it would seem to be pretty clear that original ignorance is a prime factor. Ignorance, covering like a cloud, gives rise to two great streams, each running its sure course to the vast gulfs of human misery and national detriment. The one is vice, and finds its natural outflow in the swamps of pollution, degradation, pauperism, sickness, suffering, and death. The other is crime, and finds its outflow in the jail yards and prison cells, and ends as the law directs, if it can detect.

It is on the verge of these great tributaries that the humanitarian and statesman must stand and labor, the one to save his race, the other his State.

Another child of ignorance is profligacy. This begets want, and gives rise to the necessity, or apparent necessity, for charitable giving, whether actual or so called. At all events, it is the division of the comforts of life between those who have and those who have not. Here, again, the workers, thinkers, and saviors of society stand and toil.

It is from the banks of these great troubled streams that this Conference has come. Not a man or woman here but has plunged the saving hand deep into their bitter waters, and found the current too swift to be stayed, and the débris, once rushing drift-wood, difficult to arrest, if not dangerous to handle. And, wearied and perplexed, in anxious hope, you have turned to one another for counsel and help, to try to gain from the varied experiences of each a knowledge of any better methods than you may yet have known. Each has brought to this shrine his hard-earned tribute of love, faith, search, and endeavor, and laid it faithfully and gracefully upon the altar. Or, may I not rather say that, like the "Pearl of the Peri," it has been passed into the hand of the angel waiting to receive it?

Let me, friends, men and women, as one of those designated to receive this Conference, thank you for having chosen to erect your altar at our door. Our city is honored and proud and glad; and you take back with you to your homes, to your places of God-given work and endeavor, the sympathy and the blessing of the people of the capital of our common country.

Mr. WOLF, who was next called upon, spoke as follows: After listening to the admirable remarks of my friend, Miss Barton, it seems to me to be carrying coals to Newcastle to add anything thereto. But, as I have been requested to give expression to the sentiment of the people of Washington for the honor conferred upon us by your coming here, I wish to state that we have been more than

pleased: we have been gratified and enlightened. Your labors have not only been of an elevated character, but I am sure that they will be of permanent value. For the first time, although I have worked in the same direction for years, I have had the honor of being a member of this Conference. I came here with some doubt, not knowing what the scope or aim or character of the work would be. It is true I had read the Eleventh Annual Report of the great work done in St. Louis; yet I was in some doubt, after all. But the work accomplished here has completely disarmed that doubt. I know we are all engaged in a common work,—not as Christians, not as Jews, but as men and women of a common country, believing in the fatherhood of one God and the brotherhood of all men. And, while your labors are in this direction, you will have the sympathy, the hearty co-operation, and the contributions of one and all. You, my good brother or sister of the Presbyterian, Episcopal, or Methodist faith, in your respective churches worship and pray according to the dictates of your own conscience. I do the same in mine. It is my God-given right: it is my right as a citizen of the United States. But when we meet in conference, for the purpose of elevating humanity, of raising and helping men, then the standard has to be erected higher than the mere sectarian church or the synagogue discipline. Whatever elevates the Jew elevates the Christian, and whatever degrades the Jew degrades the Christian. It is from this stand-point that I have come into this Conference, and that I have consented to be a member of a committee of the Conference to be held at St. Paul next year. I shall give it my best endeavors, my heartiest sympathies, my warmest labors, assured that whatever is beneficial for one is beneficial for all. It is the mission of this Conference to arouse mankind, to awake the deaf heart and the mute soul inherent in human nature. In this effort, you shall have our heartiest aid. I pray to God that we may meet in St. Paul, as we part here, upon a common platform, having but one aim and one ambition, the elevation of our race and the good of our country.

Judge MACARTHUR.—Perhaps it is appropriate, as I offered the first word of welcome, that I should pronounce the last word of farewell. I say it with reluctance. The first word of welcome was given with great pleasure. The last word of greeting is at the close of the labors of this Conference,—labors the result of which, I believe, will last during the lifetime of the present generation of those who live in the capital of the United States. I have seen many conventions here, and heard of many that I have not seen; but

I think that no convention has ever made a better impression here. It has been made up of men and women coming from every portion of the United States,—not for a single purpose, not for a single class, not to obtain office, not to pass laws, but, if I may so speak, to morally legislate for all the interests of humanity. I have never listened to so many level-headed men and women talking common sense as in this Conference. They have spoken as if they were responsible for every word that proceeded out of their mouths, and as if they uttered them for a purpose and with a design, and not to gain the applause of a popular audience, but as if expressing the conviction of their hearts. In every respect, although these debates have been free, they have been held in check; and the sensible and noble element has predominated, so that the discussions have well supplemented the matchless papers that have been read. The citizens of Washington feel that the members of this Conference may well be proud of what they have here accomplished. And yet I did not know last evening, when I was listening to the paper by Mr. Hawthorne, but that we were all wrong about this thing. I rather thought, from the drift of his discourse, that all the good and clever people had been put into the penitentiaries; and it was only the hypocrites, the masqueraders, and the pretenders who had been left out in the cold. However, I got over that feeling very soon, when I saw the Conference resume its deliberations again; and I was relieved by the discovery that the Conference was right, after all. The effect of that paper reminded me of an anecdote relating to Ben Wade, who was once asked his opinion on heaven and hell. "Well," said Mr. Wade, "I think, from all I can learn, that heaven has the better climate, but hell has the better company." I should be sorry, indeed, if this Conference took the pessimistic views which we heard last night. For myself, I am an optimist; and I would draw down on your heads, if I could, all the wisdom and love and strength that you need, to find out the causes of disorder and the remedies for evil. But, since I have not the keys of the upper realm, I can only ask Heaven to give its benediction to you.

The speeches and resolutions which you have just heard refer, in detail, to the highest officers of the government, to the municipal authorities of the District of Columbia, and to the Local Committee of which *pars fui*,—not *magna*, however,—and to the citizens generally. Then there is a personal compliment to our friend, Mrs. Spencer, which is very well deserved. As a member of the Executive Committee, I do not know what we should have done without

her. She held the fort day and night. She stood, as it were, with a loaded revolver, to keep every man up to his duty, and, if he showed the least symptom of weakness, ready to shoot him down. For the success of our arrangements, we are greatly indebted to her energy and strength of character. If she believes in anything under the blue canopy, it is in the Conference of Charities and Correction. Our citizens will never forget the splendid manner in which you have fulfilled your programme, nor will they forget this noble Conference. In conclusion, I have only to bid you most sincerely farewell.

President GARRETT invited Mrs. Spencer to add a few words.

Mrs. SPENCER said that she could only, from a full heart, thank the Conference for coming to Washington, and assure it of her constant sympathy in the work in which it is engaged.

President GARRETT.—It only remains for me, in closing this the Twelfth National Conference of Charities and Correction, to introduce my successor. To you, our kind friends of the District of Columbia, I wish to add an expression of my gratitude for the hospitality extended to us. And to you, ladies and gentlemen of the Conference, I feel bound to express my great satisfaction at the success of the Conference; that there has been such uniformly good feeling, such an entire absence of friction, and from the beginning to the end, for nearly a week, such a succession of pleasant and instructive intellectual entertainments. Those who may have had misgivings at the close of the last Conference as to the expediency of holding this one in Washington must surely have had them dissipated. I have not before witnessed a Conference in which the interest and numbers were so well sustained, nor one, I believe, in which the conclusions reached in the discussions were more satisfactory. From this centre of power will go out an ever-widening circle of influence upon the charities and corrections of the nation, greater than would have gone from any other point. And now I have the pleasure of yielding my stewardship to my successor, William Howard Neff.

Mr. NEFF responded to the introduction of President Garrett in a short speech, offering the following resolution, which was adopted:—

Resolved, That the thanks of the Twelfth National Conference of Charities and Correction are due, and are hereby tendered, to Hon. Philip C. Garrett of Pennsylvania, the President of the Conference, for the grace, courtesy, dignity, and impartiality with which he has presided over our deliberations; to Prof. A. O. Wright of Wisconsin, Rev. H. H. Hart of Minnesota, and Hon. Cadwalader Biddle and Rev. J. L. Milligan of Pennsylvania, for their faithful and laborious services as secretaries of the Conference; and to Mrs. Isabel C. Barrows, of Boston, Mass., for the remarkable accuracy of her reports of the Proceedings of the Conference.

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen,—I thank you for the very unexpected and very undeserved honor you have conferred upon me. I accept it as a compliment to the State which in part I represent, and to the Board of State Charities of which I am a member. You have laid a grave responsibility upon me. I can bring to the discharge of its duties nothing but a most earnest desire, to the best of my ability, to maintain the usefulness of the National Conference of Charities and Correction. This, the Twelfth Conference, is the largest and best ever held. Four hundred and four delegates are present. We have had reports from thirty-five States and the District of Columbia. The papers presented have been remarkably able and philosophical, and the thoughts have been expressed in diction of a very high order. The discussions have been spirited, good-humored, witty, and very instructive, expressing every shade of thought and testing theories by the light of life-long experience. Permit me to say that our discussions have been greatly improved by the presence of ladies as delegates, and by their participation in the debates. A higher degree of decorum has been maintained, the little niceties and proprieties and courtesies have been better observed, and those who encountered them in debate needed to be continually on the alert, and to look well to their weapons; and even then they often fled in discomfiture. I have attended the debates in the British House of Commons and the British House of Lords, in the Legislative Assembly of France, the Imperial Parliament of the Dominion of Canada, and of course in our own House of Representatives and the Senate of the United States; and I tell you, ladies and gentlemen, that the National Conference of Charities and Correction will favorably compare with the best of them.

The National Conference of Charities and Correction is fast becoming, if it is not now already, one of the most dignified, most useful, most important, most influential deliberative assemblies in the world. No one can set limits to its power. I have a dream which I trust is not all a dream. Joyous bells have ushered in the first year of the new century. The Twenty-seventh National Conference of Charities and Correction in the United States of America is assembling. Again we meet in the city of Washington, now a metropolis of five hundred thousand inhabitants, the fairest and most beautiful city which the sun beholds in his daily round. Again we are welcomed by bright eyes and kind words and loving hearts, but this time we meet under the dome of the Capitol. Every State is represented. Every State has its Board of State Charities. Every

delegation is headed by the Governor of the State, with his wisest counsellors around him. Every public and private charity is represented. And there, too, are the matrons and maidens whose example has stimulated and whose presence is to cheer and to inspire. There are the justices of the Supreme Court of the United States, the members of the Cabinet, the judges, and senators and representatives, the superintendents, the wardens, the matrons, the best of the land. The chair which you, sir, have filled so well, is occupied by no less august a personage than the Chief Magistrate of the United States, the most powerful potentate of earth, the chosen ruler of one hundred millions of free and happy people. You are about to commence your deliberations; but I hear a murmur, faint and indistinct at first, but gradually gathering volume and force, until it becomes as the sound of many waters. It comes from every prison and every asylum and every poorhouse and every reformatory in the land; but it is not the groan of the prisoner who sees no escape but in death, nor the shriek of the manacled maniac, abandoned and shunned by man, nor the sigh of helpless old age bereft of all hope, nor the wail of innocent childhood with no eye to pity and no arm to save. It is the blessing of those who were ready to perish that is coming upon you. As its precious perfume fills the air and rejoices the heart and makes earth the very ante-chamber of heaven, you stand with bowed and reverent heads; and the response of the vast assembly comes as the voice of one man, "Not unto us, not unto us, but unto thy great name, be all the glory."

Rev. H. H. Hart was asked to close the Conference with prayer.

The Conference then adjourned at 10.30 P.M., to meet in St. Paul, Minn., June, 1886.

FINANCIAL STATEMENT.

Dr.	A. O. WRIGHT, <i>Secretary</i> , IN ACCOUNT WITH NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES.	Cr.
Cash on hand Sept. 17, 1883,	\$34.10	
Cash received for subscriptions to printed Proceedings from Sept. 17, 1883, to May 11, 1885,	1,270.54	
		Paid Midland Publishing Co., \$1,037.40
		For Albertotypes, 60.00
		For French translation, 5.00
		For freight on tools, 2.40
		For clerk hire, 75.00
		Cash on hand, 124.84
	\$1,304.64	\$1,304.64
		MADISON, WIS., May 28, 1885.

LIST OF MEMBERS.

Alabama.

Johnson, J. H., M.D., Superintendent Institution for the Deaf and Dumb and the Blind, Talladega.

California.

Blake, Charles M., M.D., Pacific Dispensary Hospital, San Francisco.

Colorado.

Sperry, Mrs. J. S., Manager Ladies' Benevolent Hospital, Pueblo.

Connecticut.

Beers, Mrs. M. A., Matron Fairfield County Home, Bridgeport.
Bond, Mrs. C. H., Superintendent Industrial School for Girls, Middletown.
Burton, Henry E., Secretary State Board of Charities, Hartford.
Griswold, Miss Josephine W., City Mission, Hartford.
Potwin, T. S., Superintendent Hartford Orphan Asylum, Hartford.
Potwin, Mrs. H. K., Matron Hartford Orphan Asylum, Hartford.
Smith, Mrs. Virginia T., State Board of Charities, Hartford.
Warner, Charles Dudley, Hartford.

Dakota.

Ford, Mrs. O. M., Aberdeen.
Koehler, Charles M., Warden Dakota Penitentiary, Sioux Falls.

Delaware.

Canby, Miss A. T., Female Benevolent Society, Wilmington.
Canby, William M., Wilmington.
Massey, John, Superintendent Associated Charities, Wilmington.
Pickels, William D., Ferris Reform School, Wilmington.
Warner, A. D., Associated Charities, Wilmington.
Warner, Mrs. A. D., Associated Charities, Wilmington.

Florida.

Chipley, W. D., Pensacola.

Georgia.

Estill, J. H., President Bethesda Orphans' Home, Savannah.

Illinois.

Croswell, J. T., Trustee State Reform School, Pontiac.
Croswell, Mrs. J. T., Pontiac.

Felton, Charles E., Superintendent House of Correction, Chicago.

Finch, E. H., Trustee Illinois Southern Insane Hospital, Anna.

Finch, Mrs. E. H., Anna.

Frey, C. L., Warden County Infirmary, Chicago.

Harley, M. M., County Contractor of Public Buildings, Chicago.

Harrison, Mrs. Ursula L., Superintendent Illinois Industrial School for Girls, South Evanston.

Kendall, Solon, Trustee State Reform School, Geneseo.

Kendall, Mrs. Solon, Geneseo.

Leyden, M. R., County Commissioner of Cook County, Chicago.

Lynn, C. F., County Commissioner of Cook County, Chicago.

Merrick, Mrs. H. A., Erring Women's Refuge, Chicago.

O'Brien, James, County Agent, Chicago.

Ochs, Adam, Chairman County Commissioners of Cook County, Chicago.

Ohr, Mrs. Virginia C., Superintendent Soldiers' Orphans' Home, Normal.

Packard, Mrs. E. P. W., Chicago.

Salter, John C., Warden Southern Penitentiary, Chester.

Scouller, J. D., M.D., Superintendent State Reform School, Pontiac.

Scouller, Mrs. J. D., Pontiac.

Slaughter, Mrs. Laura L., Superintendent St. Paul's Orphanage, Springfield.

Trusdell, Rev. Chas. G., State Board of Public Charities and Superintendent Relief and Aid Society, Chicago.

Van Pelt, John E., Chairman of Public Charities, Chicago.

Whipp, John W., Assistant Secretary State Board of Charities, Springfield.

Whipp, Mrs. John W., Springfield.

Indiana.

Baker, Eli P., Superintendent Institution for Deaf and Dumb, Indianapolis.

Breeden, Rev. H. O., Charity Organization Society, Terre Haute.

Briggs, Howard, Trustee Institution for the Blind, Greencastle.

Burrell, B. H., Trustee Hospital for the Insane, Brownstown.

Charlton, Mrs. Alice R., Matron State Reform School for Boys, Plainfield.

Charlton, Major T. J., Superintendent State Reform School for Boys, Plainfield.

Fletcher, W. B., M.D., Superintendent Hospital for the Insane, Indianapolis.

Harrison, Thomas H., President Board of Benevolent Institutions.

McCulloch, Rev. Oscar C., Charity Organization Society, Indianapolis.

McNutt, C. F., Terre Haute.

Reeve, C. H., Plymouth.

Russell, F. D., Terre Haute.

Iowa.

Bickford, Miss L. F., Matron Cook Home for the Friendless, Davenport.
 Foster, Mrs. J. Ellen, Clinton.
 Hall, Mrs. B. J., Trustee State Industrial School, Burlington.
 Hill, Gershom H., M.D., Superintendent Iowa Hospital for the Insane, Independence.
 Lewellen, P. W., M.D., Trustee Mt. Pleasant Hospital for the Insane, Clarinda.
 McCowen, Jennie, M.D., Physician to the Cook Home of the Friendless, Davenport.
 Miller, Mrs. Florence, Board of Managers, Benedict Home, Des Moines.
 O'Brien, Miss Jennie, Relief Society, Burlington.
 Pierce, S. W., Superintendent Iowa Orphans' Home, Davenport.
 Pierce, Mrs. S. W., Matron Iowa Orphans' Home, Davenport.
 Shinn, Frank, Carson.
 Williston, Rev. M. L., Davenport.
 Wright, Mrs. George, Board of Managers, Benedict Home, Des Moines.

Kentucky.

Anderson, Gov. Charles, Kuttawa.
 Anderson, Miss Kitty, Kuttawa.
 Athey, Miss Elizabeth W., Covington.
 Caldwell, P., Superintendent Reformatories, Louisville.
 Durham, M. J., Danville.
 Pickett, Jos. Desha, Ph.D., State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Frankfort.
 Pusey, H. K., M.D., Superintendent Central Lunatic Asylum, Anchorage.
 Stewart, John Q. A., M.D., Superintendent Kentucky Institution for the Education and Training of Feeble-minded Children, Frankfort.

Maryland.

Baldwin, Silas, M.D., Physician Maryland Penitentiary.
 Bond, Frank A., Superintendent Maryland House of Correction, Jessups.
 Counselman, L. W., Director Maryland Penitentiary.
 Dennis, J. U., Director Maryland Penitentiary.
 Fisher, Judge William A., Baltimore.
 Ford, J. T., Director Maryland Penitentiary, Baltimore.
 Goodwin, C. Ridgely, Society for Protection of Children, Baltimore.
 Griffith, G. S., President Prison Association, Baltimore.
 Gundry, Richard, M.D., Maryland Hospital for the Insane, Catonsville.
 Hall, R. M., M.D., Industrial Home for Colored Girls, Baltimore.
 Hochheimer, L., Society for Protection of Children, Baltimore.
 Horn, John W., Warden Maryland Penitentiary.
 Jackson, W. F., Director Maryland Penitentiary.
 Johnson, George C., Teacher House of Refuge, Baltimore.
 Kines, J. W., Prisoners' Aid Association, Baltimore.
 Kirkwood, R. J., Superintendent House of Refuge, Baltimore.
 Morris, John, M.D., Prisoners' Aid Association, Baltimore.
 Parker, George W., Society for Protection of Children, Baltimore.
 Seim, Henry, Director Maryland Penitentiary, Baltimore.
 Williar, George R., Director Maryland Penitentiary, Baltimore.
 Zinkhan, Rev. Louis F., General Agent, Maryland Prisoners' Aid Association, Baltimore.

Massachusetts.

Barrows, Mrs. Isabel C., Official Reporter and Editor Proceedings, Boston.
 Barrows, Miss Mabel, Boston.
 Brooks, Miss Alice, Boston.
 Clapp, Miss A. E., Associated Charities, Boston.
 Fallon, John, State Board of Health, Lunacy, and Charity, Lawrence.
 French, Miss S. E., Boston.
 Goldsmith, W. B., M.D., Superintendent Lunatic Asylum, Danvers.
 Green, Miss Lillian, Boston.
 Hawthorne, Julian, Boston.
 Hitchcock, Prof. Edward, State Board of Health, Lunacy, and Charity, Amherst.
 Holbrook, Mrs. S. P., Boston.
 Humphrey, Miss Anna, Boston.
 Noble, Reuben, State Board of Health, Lunacy, and Charity, Westfield.
 Ring, Thomas F., Overseers of the Poor, Boston.
 Sanborn, F. B., Inspector of Charities, Boston.
 Smith, Miss Zilpha D., Associated Charities, Boston.
 Torrey, Everett, State Board of Health, Lunacy, and Charity, Boston.

Michigan.

Barbour, Levi L., State Board of Corrections and Charities, Detroit.
 Conger, O. D., Port Huron.
 D'Arcambal, Mrs. Agnes, Prison Missionary, Kalamazoo.
 Dewing, Mrs. William G., Secretary Children's Home, Kalamazoo.
 Foster, John N., Superintendent State Public School, Coldwater.
 Foster, Mrs. John N., Coldwater.
 Gower, C. A., Superintendent Reform School, Lansing.
 Gower, Miss Helen D., Lansing.
 Lichtenberg, F. W., Inspector House of Correction, Detroit.
 Lichtenberg, Mrs. F. W., Detroit.
 Nicholson, Miss Fannie J., Detroit.
 Nicholson, Capt. Joseph, Superintendent House of Correction, Detroit.
 Nicholson, Miss M. L., Detroit.
 Wheeler, J. J., State Board of Corrections and Charities, East Saginaw.

Minnesota.

Bell, D. C., State Board of Corrections and Charities, Minneapolis.
 Berry, Gen. C. H., State Board of Corrections and Charities, Winona.
 Brackett, Fred., Minneapolis.
 Campbell, W. M., State Board of Corrections and Charities, Litchfield.
 Cotter, Rev. J. B., Winona.
 Dana, M. McG., D.D., State Board of Corrections and Charities, St. Paul.
 Hart, Rev. H. H., Secretary State Board of Corrections and Charities, St. Paul.
 Hutchins, Robert G., D.D., Minneapolis.
 Ingersoll, D. W., President Board of Trustees of State Reform School, St. Paul.
 Visser, John, Superintendent Charity Organization Society, St. Paul.
 Vivian, G., M.D., State Board of Corrections and Charities, Alexandria.
 Wells, H. R., State Board of Corrections and Charities, Preston.
 Wilkinson, M. S., Wells.
 Williams, Nelson, Superintendent of the Poor, Minneapolis.
 Williams, Mrs. Nelson, Minneapolis.

Missouri.

Couzens, Miss Phoebe, St. Louis.
 Gottschalk, Rev. A., City Missionary, Kansas City.
 Haley, Rev. T. P., Kansas City.
 Lack, Rev. Frederick, Superintendent Provident Association, St. Louis.
 Lack, Mrs. Frederick, Assistant Superintendent Provident Association, St. Louis.

Nebraska.

Dinsmore, Mrs. O. C., President Women's Associate Charities of Nebraska, Omaha.
 Edson, Miss Ida E., Omaha.
 Leville, William, Omaha.
 Mathewson, H. P., M.D., Superintendent State Insane Asylum, Lincoln.
 Mathewson, Mrs. H. P., Lincoln.
 Mathewson, H. P., Jr., Lincoln.
 Newman, Mrs. Angie F., State Superintendent Jail and Prison Work of W. C. T. U., Lincoln.

New Hampshire.

Mason, John Edward, M.D., Board of Trustees, State Industrial School, Manchester.

New Jersey.

Hall, Miss M. A., Trenton.
 Harrison, C. M., Superintendent Newark City Home, Verona.
 Harrison, W. F., Teacher Newark City Home, Verona.
 Hunt, Ezra M., M.D., Secretary State Board of Health, Trenton.
 Neilson, James, Charity Organization Society, New Brunswick.
 Neilson, Mrs. James, New Brunswick.
 Otterson, Ira, Superintendent State Reform School, Jamesburg.
 Otterson, Mrs. Ira, Jamesburg.

New York.

Armstrong, T. S., M.D., Superintendent Asylum for Chronic Insane, Binghamton.
 Armstrong, Mrs. T. S., Binghamton.
 Brockway, Z. R., Superintendent New York State Reformatory, Elmira.
 Buzelle, George B., General Secretary Bureau of Charities, Brooklyn.
 Fuller, Charles W., Superintendent of the Poor of Erie County, Buffalo.
 Fuller, Mrs. Charles W., Buffalo.
 Fulton, Levi S., Superintendent Western House of Refuge, Rochester.
 Harris, H. M., American Female Guardian Society, New York.
 Harris, Mrs. H. M., Secretary American Female Guardian Society, New York.
 Hoyt, Charles S., M.D., Secretary State Board of Charities, Albany.
 Hoyt, Mrs. Charles S., Albany.
 Letchworth, W. P., President State Board of Charities, Portageville.
 Lowell, Mrs. C. R., State Board of Charities, Charity Organization Society, New York.
 Ogden, D. A., Trustee Willard Asylum for the Insane, Penn Yan.
 Richards, J. B., New York.
 Ring, C. A., M.D., Superintendent Insane Department of Erie County Almshouse, Buffalo.
 Round, W. M. F., Secretary National Prison Association, New York.
 Rosenau, N. S., Secretary Charity Organization Society, Buffalo.

Skinner, J. W., Agent Children's Aid Society, New York.
 Smith, Eugene, Secretary Prison Association of New York, New York.
 Welles, S. R., Trustee Willard Asylum for Insane, Waterloo.
 Winspear, C. W., Deputy Keeper Erie County Almshouse, Buffalo.

North Carolina.

Bailey, Rev. C. T., Raleigh.
 Beasley, Col. W. F., Oxford.
 Mills, J. H., Thomasville.

Ohio.

Barnett, Gen. James, Bethel Associated Charities, Cleveland.
 Bradstreet, E. P., Director Workhouse, Cincinnati.
 Brinkerhoff, Gen. R., Board of State Charities, Mansfield.
 Burdick, Leander, Charity Organization Society, Toledo.
 Burdick, Mrs. Leander, President Board of Hotel Industry, Toledo.
 Byers, Rev. A. G., Secretary Board of State Charities, Columbus.
 Doren, G. A., M.D., Superintendent Institution for Feeble-minded Youth, Columbus.
 Filler, H. C., Superintendent Franklin County Infirmary, Columbus.
 Filler, Mrs. H. C., Columbus.
 Finch, C. M., M.D., Superintendent Asylum for the Insane, Columbus.
 Ford, Miss O. M., Mission Herald, Cincinnati.
 Hite, J. C., Superintendent Boys' Industrial School, Lancaster.
 Holden, R. A., House of Refuge, Cincinnati.
 Horn, Wm. E., Trustee Asylum for Insane, Columbus.
 Innis, Col. G. S., Trustee Franklin County Children's Home, Columbus.
 Johnson, W. A., General Secretary Associated Charities, Cincinnati.
 Kahlo, Henry, Trustee House of Refuge and Correction, Toledo.
 Lockwood, C. B., Bethel Associated Charities, Cleveland.
 McDonald, A. A., Superintendent House of Refuge and Correction, Toledo.
 McDonald, Mrs. A. A., Toledo.
 McGregor, A., Trustee Imbecile Asylum Canton.
 Neff, Miss Isabel Howard Cincinnati.
 Neff, William Howard, Board of State Charities, Cincinnati.
 Parmelee, Mrs. E. C., Assistant Bethel Associated Charities, Cleveland.
 Patterson, W. D., Superintendent Workhouse, Cleveland.
 Richardson, A. B., M.D., Superintendent Asylum for Insane, Athens.
 Scheble, E. D., M.D., Trustee House of Refuge and Correction, Toledo.
 Shunk, A. H., Superintendent Protestant Orphan Asylum, Cleveland.
 Shunk, Mrs. A. H., Matron Protestant Orphan Asylum, Cleveland.
 Webb, J., Jr., House of Refuge, Cincinnati.
 White, Albert S., Superintendent Franklin County Children's Home, Columbus.

Oregon.

Lindsley, A. L., D.D., Children's Aid and Reform School, Portland.
 Lindsley, Mrs. A. L., Home for the Friendless, Portland.

Pennsylvania.

Allen, Miss A. H.
 Arbuckle, Miss C., Allegheny.
 Arbuckle, Miss M., Allegheny.
 Baily, Joshua L., President Directors of Society for Organizing Charity, Philadelphia.
 Biddle, Cadwalader, Secretary State Board of Charities, Philadelphia.
 Blair, Mrs. Julia F., Secretary Children's Aid Society, Allegheny.
 Blankenburg, Rudolph, Society for Organizing Charity, Philadelphia.
 Blankenburg, Mrs. Rudolph, Society for Organizing Charity, Philadelphia.
 Bonsall, Amos, Board of Managers House of Refuge, Trustee Pennsylvania Institution for Feeble-minded Children, Philadelphia.
 Brown, Samuel C., Pennsylvania Society to Protect Children from Cruelty, Philadelphia.
 Brown, Mrs. Samuel C., Philadelphia.
 Bull, Rev. William L., Philadelphia Prison Society, Whitford, Chester County.
 Cadwalader, Charles E., M.D., Charity Organization Society and Prison Society, Philadelphia.
 Chapin, John B., Physician Pennsylvania Hospital for Insane, Philadelphia.
 Collins, Frederic, Manager House of Refuge, Philadelphia.
 Davis, Gen. W. W. H., Member State Board of Charities.
 Dechert, Henry M., Director Pennsylvania Institution for Feeble-minded Children, Philadelphia.
 Donehoo, Rev. E. R., Pittsburgh.
 Emmert, D., Superintendent Home for Orphans and Friendless Children, Huntingdon.
 Foster, Morrison, Manager Pennsylvania Reform School at Morganza, Allegheny.
 Garrett, Philip C., State Board of Charities, Charity Organization Society, Philadelphia.
 Gillespie, Thomas L., Manager House of Refuge, Philadelphia.
 Hall, George W., Philadelphia Prison Society.
 Hall, Mrs. George W., Philadelphia.
 Hallowell, Miss Anna, State Board of Charities and Charity Organization Society, Philadelphia.
 Herron, Miss Mary, President Widows' Home and Relief Society, Allegheny.
 Horner, Miss E. A., Philadelphia City Hospital.
 Hoyt, ex-Gov. Henry M., State Board Charities.
 Kerlin, Isaac N., M.D., Superintendent Pennsylvania Institution for Feeble-minded Children, Elwyn.
 Laverty, J. Hood, Superintendent House of Refuge, Philadelphia.
 Leib, Mrs. Frank, Children's Industrial Home, Harrisburgh.
 McAdams, G. W., Charity Organization Society, Philadelphia.
 Meredith, Miss C. K., State Board of Charities and Charity Organization Society, Philadelphia.
 Milligan, Rev. J. L., Chaplain, Western Penitentiary; President Allegheny County Prison Society, Allegheny.
 Moses, Rev. R. G., Society for Organizing Charity, Philadelphia.
 Myers, Miss Julia A., Philadelphia.
 Paist, Mrs. Harriet W., Philadelphia Prison Society, Philadelphia.
 Paist, M. K., Philadelphia.
 Patterson, Mrs. J. D., Children's Industrial Home, Harrisburgh.
 Patterson, Jennie E., Association for Improvement of Poor, Pittsburgh.
 Pressly, Miss M. M., Secretary Widows' Home and Relief Society, Allegheny.
 Robinson, Thomas A., Manager House of Refuge, Philadelphia.

Sawyer, William J., State Board of Charities, Allegheny.
 Strawbridge, J. C., Philadelphia.
 Strawbridge, Mrs. J. C., State Board of Charities and Charity Organization Society, Philadelphia.
 Sypher, J. R., Society for Organizing Charity, Philadelphia.
 Uchimura, John K. (of Tokio, Japan), Pennsylvania Institution for Feeble-minded Children.
 Walk, James W., M.D., General Secretary Society for Organizing Charity, Philadelphia.
 Walk, Miss M. M., Northern Home for Friendless Children, Philadelphia.
 Wharton, Mrs. Rodman, State Board of Charities and Charity Organization Society, Philadelphia.

Rhode Island.

Chapin, William W., Secretary, Board of State Charities and Corrections, Providence.
 Green, Henry L., Board of State Charities and Corrections, River Point.
 Wendte, Rev. Charles W., Charity Organization Society, Newport.

South Carolina.

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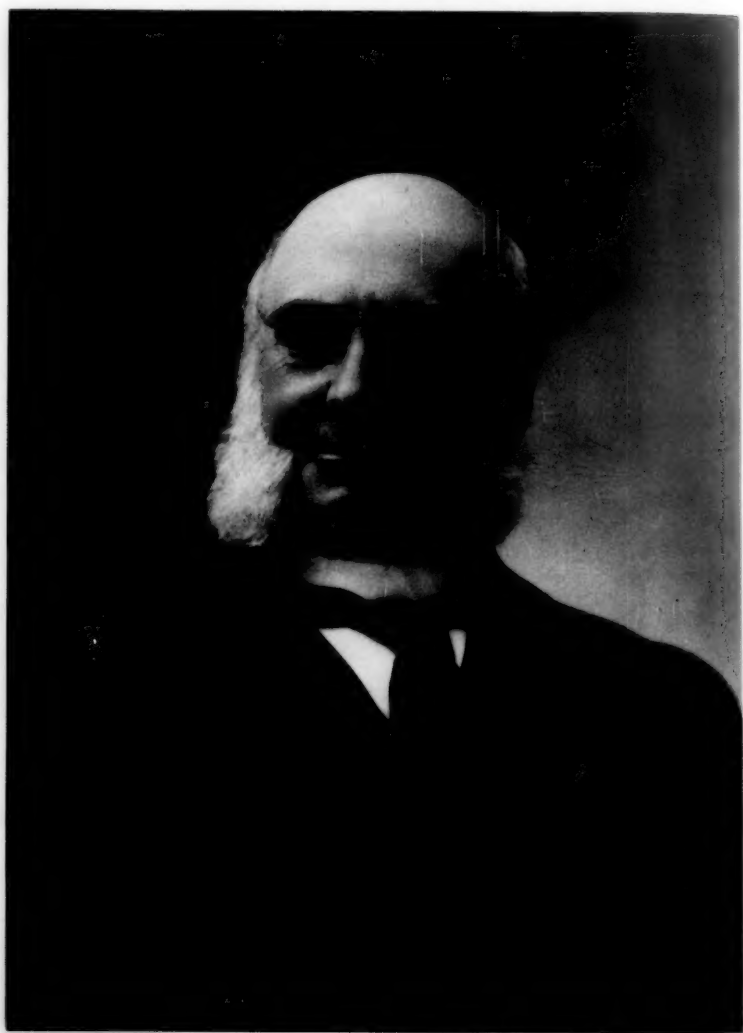
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